Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2007 with funding from
Microsoft Corporation

http://www.archive.org/details/n42t45unitedservi00londuoft

675

THE

UNITED SERVICE

JOURNAL

AND

Naval and Military Magazine.

1832. PART II.

LONDON:
HENRY COLBURN AND RICHARD BENTLEY,
NEW BURLINGTON STREET.

U
1
U6
40.42-
45

640932
24.8.56

LONDON:
PRINTED BY WILLIAM CLOWES,
Stamford Street.

England, sensations on leaving, 82
Essay on tactics, 212
Euphemia, a small brig, taken by the Americans, 168—extraordinary account of her re-capture, 169

Fabvier, Colonel, 29
Fairbairn, Henry, on marine railways, 70, 207
Faris, Lieut., his desperate encounter with a Frenchman, 177
Fenwick, Lieut.-Colonel, his death, 575
Ferdinand, his departure from Madrid, 164
Field gardens for the labouring poor, on the benefit of, 93
Field Signals, new system of, 383
Fiesco, a tragedy, noticed, 382
Fitzclarence, Lord Adolphus, his mission to Berlin, 460
Flag of Truce, 205
Fleet, Arrivals, Sailings, and Incidents in, 122, 271
Flints, on the fixing of, 206
Floating-college, suggestions for, 387
Flogging in the army, 457
Flying-bridge, experiment with, 78
Foraging, remarks on, 207
Foreign Miscellany, 77, 231, 379
Formation by Threes and Fours, 106
Foster, Commander Henry, tribute to his memory, 119
Fowke, Rear-Admiral, Memoir of his services, 69
Fragments of Voyages and Travels, reviewed, 181
France, affairs of, 258, 379, 401
——— progress of the arts and sciences in, 436
Freeman, late Admiral, services of, 112—anecdote of, 121
French Army, its present condition, 78, 231
——— Military Punishments, 452
——— Navy, regulations in, 235
——— Officer, anecdote of, at El Bodon, 229
———, Sketches of their War in Spain in 1823, 26, 471
Fuentes d'Onore, on the Cavalry operations at, 97

Galatea, her arrival at Terceira, 150
General Correspondence with the Editor, 97, 241, 385, 538
——— Orders, Circulars, &c. 122, 272, 420, 553
Goderich, Lord, 518
Goulburn, Mr., 561, 562
Graham, Sir James, 132, 273, 275, 277, 278
Grandpré's Voyage to Bengal, 495
Great Britain, state of affairs in, 113, 257, 401, 549
——— armed force in, 121
——— church establishment of, 146
Great Coats, on carrying, 107
Greece, subjugated by Macedonia, 292
Guise, Duke, anecdote of, 167
Gurney, Mr., his Observations on Steam-carriages, 91

Hall, Capt. Basil, his "Fragments of Voyages and Travels," reviewed, 81—alluded to, 329—on an improvement in Massey's Sounding Machine, 100
Hall, Mr. liberation of, 519
Halliday, Sir Andrew, his suggestions for a Naval and Military Lunatic Asylum, 93, 244
Hannibal, successes of, 5—his genius, 6
Hanno, Voyage of, 490
Hanover, some account of, 461—troops at, 462
Hardiman, Lieut., killed, 181
Hardinge, Sir H., 274, 557, 562, 564, 568
Hart, Lieut.-General, memoir of his services, 501
Havre, action of the Merlin Sloop off, 228
Hayes, Major Gen., memoir of his services, 200
Heber, Bishop, supposition of, 335
Highlanders, charge made by, at Preston Pans, 46, 214
Hill, Lord, on soldiers' pensions, 419
History of Switzerland, noticed, 382
Hobhouse, Sir J. C., 409, 414, 415, 556, 564, 567
Hohenlohe, Prince of, 474
Hood, Sir Samuel, joins the Swedish fleet, 38—anecdote of, 85
Horsburgh, Capt., on the Barrier Reefs on the coast of Australasia, 98
Horses on ship-board, 205
Howick, Lord Viscount, 561
Hughes, Lieut. Gen., Memoir of his services, 201
Hulan to his Charger, 190
Hume, Mr., and Gen. Darling, 518
——— Mr., 274, 413, 558, 567
Hussars, duties of, 205
Hussein Pasha, appointed field-marshal, 238
Hussey, Rev. Mr., on the rotation of Venus, 118

Idlers, definition of the term, 488
India, British, and Russia, 14—meeting between the Governor-General of, and Runjeet Singh, Lord of the Punjab, 17
India, British, account of, 527
India Company, mutiny and insurrection in their ships, 57
Infantry drill, remarks on, 105

Infantry French, their victories over the Mamelukes, 219
———, tactics of, 42
Inglis, Sir Wm., on a passage in a recent account of the Battle of Albuhera, 241

Java, dress of the natives of, 239
Jones, Colonel Leslie Grove, 253

Knipe, Capt., killed, 97
Knowledge, diffusion of, 435
Körner, Theodore, his "Hulan to his Charger," 190

Lacy and Witton, Messrs., contradiction of, 52
Lamarque, General, funeral of, 401, 438
Lance, newly-invented, 50
Landwehr, Austrian, its present strength, 79
La Vendée, an adventure in, 379
Laws of England, remarks on, 447
Letters from the West Indies, 325
Lewald, Marshal, conduct of, 225, 468
Life Guards, reviewed, 549
Lixus, river, 490
Log of the Louisa, or the Trip to Berlin, 460
Love, effects of being in, 484
Lumley, Gen., 338

Maberly, Colonel, 560
Macedon, subjugates Greece, 292
Macerone, Col., his Defensive Instructions for the People, 50
Mackie, Maj. Gen., monument to his memory, 357
Maclean, Captain, his death, 575
Madeira, scenery of, 342
Madrid, entry of the French into, 478
Magdeburg, some account of, 463
Marani Sea, 372
Maria, Donna, of Portugal, 149—honours paid to her, 158
Marine railways, remarks on, 70—project for, across the Isthmus of Panama, and in the British possessions in North America, 207
Marinerito, a Spanish Slaver, captured by the Black Joke, 63
Maritime population of the British empire, 57
——— Speculations, No. I., 319
——— Supremacy, on the means and maintenance of, 1
Markham, Capt., his death, 431
Marriages, 142, 285, 430, 564
Marshall, Henry, on the enlisting, discharging, and pensioning of soldiers, 96
Martin, Sir Byam, 136, 276, 279
Maskelyne, Dr., the astronomer, his Nautical Almanac, 301
Massey's Sounding Machine, on an improvement in, 100, 395
Mast, a voice from before, 110
Maw, Lieut., on the Burmese War, 100—on the practice of small arms, 242—his vindication of Lord Nelson, 538
Medals for Service, 110
Mehemed Ali, Pasha of Egypt, 220
Merit, badge of, as a public testimony of honourable service, 111
Merlin Sloop, her action off Havre, 228
Meteorological Register, kept by Capt. W. H. Smyth, 144, 288, 432, 576
Meyerbeer's "Robert the Devil," 466
Miguel, Don, situation of, 149
Milford Haven, letter from, 537
Military Inspections, 113
Military Staff Alterations during the last half year, 269
Mitchell, the Pirate, account of, 520
Modern troops and tactics, cavalry and infantry, 42
Molitor, Count, his entry into Sarragossa, 473
Monkeys on ship-board, 86
More, J. H., work by him, 333, 334
Mortars, improved, 382
Mountains, formation of, 183
Moving Chains, length, size, and weight of, 532
Mundy's Sketches in India, 527
Murray, John, on a new Shower-bath, and an apparatus for restoring suspended animation, 94
Murray, Major-General, Memoir of his services, 68
Murray, Sir George, 560
Mutiny Bill, committee on, 415
My last Cigar, 230

Napier, Capt. Charles, his remarks on steam-vessels, 65—on the present state of the navy, 385
Napier, Col., remarks of, 43, 241
Nautical Almanac, observations on, 298
Naval and Military Library and Museum, 46, 258, 404, 550
——————— Lunatic Asylum, suggestion for, 98, 244
——————— register, 113, 257
—— Architecture, compendium of, 96—observations on, 346, 507, 541
—— Civil Departments Bill, 125
—— Construction, British, remarks on, 90
—— Gunnery, improvements in, 88
—— Promotion, expenses of the last year's, 252
—— Punishments, observations on, 366
Navarino, a French man-of-war, 236
Navy, brevet rank in, 107—on the present mode of manning, 110—remarks on the state of, 385—promotions in, 387

INDEX

TO THE

SECOND PART OF 1832.

Abisbal, letters of Count de Montigo to, 476
Acids, burning, use of, 56
Acre, siege of, and military resources of Egypt, 220
Addiscombe, examination at the military seminary at, 405
Admirals, form of affidavit for, 195—number and pay of, 390
Admiralty, the, official visits to the seaports, 103—the late Board of, 386
Advanced Guards, 204
Advanced Picquets, 202
Adventure in La Vendée, 379
Adventures of Barney Mahony, 528
Affairs at Home and Abroad, 113, 257, 401, 549
Affidavit, an Officer's, 191
Africa, Southern, and the British Colonies, 370
Airy, Professor, on the Nautical Almanac, 306
Alarm, a false one, 337
Albuhera, on a passage in a recent account of the battle of, 241
Alexander, Capt. J. E., his "Notes on America," 120
Almanac, nautical, remarks on, 298
Althorp, Lord, 411, 412
Amazons, regiments of, 23
America, runs aground, 34, 35
Anchors, weight of, 533
Angoulême, Duke of, army under, in 1823, 26
Animation, suspended, apparatus for restoring, 94
Appointments and Promotions, 139, 282, 421, 571
Architecture, naval, compendium of, 96—observations on, 346, 507, 541
Armies, on the encampment of, 224
Arms and Arts, 289
Army, Belgian, 381
——, British, its stations on July 1, 1832, 427
——, attacks of the press against, 441
—— Estimates, 409
——, French, present state of, 77, 231
——, punishments in, 450
——, Spanish, its actual strength, 381
Arrivals, Sailings, and Incidents in the Fleet, 122, 271
Artificers, list of, in Portsmouth Dock Yard, 535
Australasia, on the Barrier Reefs on the coast of, 98.

Bacon, Lord, expression of, 293
Badcock, Lieut. Col., on the Cavalry operations at Fuentes d'Onore, 97—on the Outpost Duties of Cavalry, 202
Badges, distinctive to Seamen, 546
Baggage, mode of carrying, 207
Ballast for Ships, 534
Barbadoes, letter from, 468
Barclay, Capt. R. H., perilous situation of, 75
Barra, King of, defeated by the British, 124
Bath, Order of the, 539
Bayfield, Commander, his Survey of the St. Lawrence, 197
Beamish, Mr., trial of his new construction of vessel, 504
Beds and Coins for Naval Guns, new method of constructing, 88
Berkeley, Colonel, speech of, 279
Berlin, trip to, 460
Biographical Memoirs of Distinguished Persons lately deceased—Major-Gen. John Murray, 68; Rear-Adm. Fowke, 69; General Alexander Campbell, 199; Major.-Gen. Thos. Hayes, 200; Lieut.-Gen. John Hughes, 201; Vice-Adm. Winthrop, 354; Lieut.-General James Dunlop, 355; Rear-Admiral Sutton, 499; Lieut.-General Hart, 501; Lieut.-General Rottenburg, 504
Births, 142, 285, 430, 564
Black Joke, captures the Spanish slaver Marinerito, 63
Blucher, Marshal, and his ancestry, 237
Boats, improved method of securing them in the tackles, 384
Bonaparte, on the dominion of, 437
Bonne, Chevalier, report of, 312
Bourk, Gen., 161
Brazil, present state of, 408
Brevet Rank in the Navy, 107

Brindley, Robert, his Compendium of Naval Architecture, 96
British Association, meeting of, at Oxford, 403
——— Cavalry on the Peninsula, 336
——— Empire, maritime population of, 57
——— Guiana, letter from, 325
Brotherton, Col., letter of, 341
Bruce, his description of a fire, 494
Brunswick, visit to, 463
Bulow's Campaigns of Hohenlinden and Marengo, 394
Burmese War, remarks on, 100
Byng, Sir John, 566

Cabinet Cyclopædia, noticed, 382
Cadets, Russian imperial corps of, 78
Cadmus, an American Ship, 524
Campbell, Commander, his plan for manning the navy, 243
———, Gen. Alexander, Memoir of his Services, 199
Canada, prospects of in the event of war, 314
Cantin, Cape, supposition respecting, 496
Carthage, maritime supremacy of, 4
Castrametation, remarks on, 224
Cavalry affair, 6th June 1811, 256
——— British, on the Peninsula, 336
——— movements, 115
——— outpost duties of, 202
——— Riding Establishment, 115
——— tactics of, 42, 212, 392
——— weapons of, 547
Cavendish, or the Patrician at Sea, 112
Chain-cables, dimensions and weight of, 533
Charlottenburg, palace of, 466
Chatfield, Henry, his new method of constructing Beds and Coins for Naval Guns, 88—on the state of British Naval Construction in 1832, 90
Chelsea Pensioners, caution to, 407
Chæronea, action of, 291
Chestnut-grove, in Portugal, 336
China, military and naval forces of, 80
Chiossich, John, his longevity, 78
Cholera, its ravages at Paris, 113
Chouans, attack of, 380
Cigar, my last one, 230
Ciudad Rodrigo, account of storming of, 173
Clerk, Sir J., Speeches of, 137, 275, 281
Cockburn, Speeches of Sir G., 138, 274, 275
Coleman's Mythology of the Hindoos, 527
Colours, presented to the 39th regt., 551
Commutation system, 407
Condorcet, doctrines of, 433
Congo, Portuguese settlements in, 370—geography of, 372
Connaught Rangers, their bravery at the storming of Ciudad Rodrigo, 173
Consolations of an Optimist, 145
Constantinople in 1831, 9
Copper, sheets of, required to copper a ship, 535
Cornegliano, Duke of, order of the day issued by, 163
Corps, changes in the station of, 122, 553
Cortes, proceedings of, 471
Courts-Martial, proceedings of, 104
Craufurd, General, killed, 174
Crillon, anecdote of, 167
Croker, Mr., on the Naval Civil Departments' Bill, 125
Cumberland, of 74 guns, history of, 358, 511
Currents of the Ocean, 528

Dalrymple, Sir A., 559
Dance, Capt., determined bravery of, 82
Danger and Discipline, a naval incident, 75
Darling, Gen., and Mr. Hume, 518
Davies, Colonel, 412
Deaths, 142, 285, 430, 564
Defensive Instructions for the People, 50
Depôt Appointments, 548
Deserters, caution respecting, 205
Desertion, punishment of, 454
Devonport, letters from, 399, 536
Discipline, diversities of, 84
Dock Yards and Ship Building, 245
Dogmas of the Constitution, 240
Don, General Sir George, anecdote of, 227
Doors, novel mode of opening, 177
Douglas, Sir Howard, works by, 526
Douglas, Mr. Keith, 136
Dourville, a French merchant, 370, 371
Dover, proposed marine railway from to London, 71
Dragoons, British, exploits of, 229
Dunlop, Lieut.-General, Memoir of his services, 355
Dupin, M., quotation from, 460
Dutch Fleet, surrenders to the British, 35

East India Company, recruits for, 251
Edgeworth, Maria, Tales and Novels of, 528
Editor's Portfolio; or, Naval and Military Register, 113, 257, 549
Education, progress of, 434
Edye's Equipment, Displacement, &c. of Ships of War, 526
Egypt, military resources of, 220
El Bodon, bravery of a French officer at, 229, 340
Emery, Lieut., his improved method of securing boats in the tackles, 384
Emmett, Major, work translated by, 394
Encampment of armies, remarks on, 224
Engineers of steam vessels, remarks on, 249.

CONTENTS

OF THE

SECOND PART OF 1832.

PAGE

On the Means and Maintenance of Maritime Supremacy . 1

Constantinople in 1831 9

Russia and British India 14

Meeting between the Governor-General of India and Runjeet Singh, Lord of the Punjab 17

Sketches of the War of the French in Spain in the year 1823 . 26, 471

Recollections of a Sea Life 33, 329, 481

Modern Troops and Tactics—Cavalry and Infantry . . . 42

Colonel Macerone's Defensive Instructions for the People . 50

On the Maritime Population of the British Empire . 57

Capture of the Spanish Slaver, Marinerito, by the Black Joke . 63

Remarks on Steam-Vessels 65

Memoir of the Service of the late Major-General John Murray . 68

Memoir of the Service of the late Rear-Admiral Fowke . . 69

Marine Railways 70

Danger and Discipline—A Naval incident . . . 75

Foreign Miscellany.—France.—Holland.—Poland.—Russia.—Austria.—Turkey.—United States.—China . . 77, 231, 379

Reviews and Critical Notices . . . 81, 240, 382, 526

Captain Hall's Fragments of Voyages and Travels—Description of a New Method of constructing Beds and Coins for Naval Guns—Reflections on the State of British Naval Construction, in 1832—Mr. Gurney's Observations on Steam Carriages—On the benefit of Field Gardens for the Labouring Poor—On a new Shower Bath, and an Apparatus for restoring Suspended Animation—A Compendium of Naval Architecture—On the Enlisting, Discharging, and Pensioning of Soldiers . . . 81

PAGE

General Correspondence . . . 97, 241, 315, 538

Remarks on the Cavalry Operation at Fuentes d'Onore, by Lieutenant-Colonel Badcock 97

Captain Horseburgh on the Barrier Reefs on the Coast of Australasia 98

Suggestions for a Naval and Military Lunatic Asylum, by Sir Andrew Halliday 98

Captain Hall on an Improvement in Massey's Sounding Machine 100

Lieutenant Maw on the Burmese War 100

The Admiralty Official Visits to Sea Ports 103

Proceedings of Courts-Martial 104

Infantry Drill 105

Formation of Threes and Fours—Great Coats . . . 106

Brevet Rank in the Navy 107

Seniors and Juniors 108

A Voice from before the Mast 110

Medals for Service 110

On a Badge of Merit as a Public Testimony of Honourable Service 111

Cavendish 112

Services of late Admiral Freeman and Lord Henry Paulet . 112

Editor's Portfolio . . . 113, 257, 401, 549

Changes in the Station of Corps 113, 271, 549

Arrivals, Sailings, and Incidents in the Fleet . . . 122, 271

General Orders, Circulars, &c. . . . 123, 272, 420

Parliamentary Proceedings 125, 272, 409, 554

Prize Money 139, 554

Promotions and Appointments 139, 282, 421, 571

Births, Marriages, and Deaths . . 142, 285, 430, 574

Meteorological Register . . . 144, 288, 432, 576

To Readers and Correspondents . . 144, 288, 432, 576

Consolations of an Optimist 145

A Narrative of the Warfare in the Western Islands, up to the assembling of the present Expedition 149

The Prize Recaptured 167

Reminiscences of a Subaltern 173

PAGE

Villa Vilha, a Peninsular Reminiscence 183
Skyrznecki 184
The Hulan to his Charger 190
An Officer's Affidavit 191
Survey of the St. Lawrence 197
Memoir of the Services of the late General Alexander Campbell . 199
Memoir of the Services of the late Major-General Thomas Hayes . 200
Memoir of the Services of the late Lieutenant-General John Hughes 201
On the Outpost Duties of Cavalry 202
Projects for Marine Railways across the Isthmus of Panama, and in the British Possessions in North America . . 207
Reply to the Remarks of "An Old Soldier" on the Essay on Tactics 212
The Siege of Acre, and Military Resources of Egypt . . 220
Castrametation 224
Traits and Incidents, Naval and Military . . 227, 520
Reviews and Critical Notices.—The Dogmas of the Constitution . 240
Sir William Inglis on a Passage in a recent Account of the Battle of Albuera 241
On the Practice of Small Arms 242
Naval and Military Lunatic Asylums . . . 244
Dock-yards and Ship-building 245
Russia and Poland 248
Engineers of Steam-vessels 249
Recruits for the East India Company 251
Actual Expenses of the last year's Naval Promotion . . 252
Colonel Leslie Grove Jones 253
Royal Engineers and Sappers . . . . . *ib.*
The late Capt. James Williams, R.N. 255
Cavalry Affair, 6th June, 1811 256
Arms and Arts 289
On the Nautical Almanac 298
Prospects of Canada in the event of War 314
Maritime Speculations 319
Letters from the West Indies 325, 468

PAGE

The British Cavalry on the Peninsula 336

Notes from Van Diemen's Land 342

Observations upon Naval Architecture or Construction . . 346

Memoir of the Services of the late Vice-Admiral Winthrop . . 354

Memoir of the Services of the late Lieutenant-General James Dunlop 355

Monument to the joint memories of the late Major-General George Mackie, C.B., and Major-General Sir David Stewart, K.C.B., at St. Lucie 357

History of His Majesty's Ship Cumberland of seventy-four guns 358, 511

Naval Punishments 366

Southern Africa and the British Colonies . . . 370

Reviews and Critical Notices.—Fiesco, a Tragedy—Standard Novels —The Cabinet Cyclopædia 382

Field Signals 383

An improved Method of securing Boats in the Tackles . . 384

Remarks on the State of the Navy 385

"An Old Soldier," to "J. M.," upon Tactics . . . 392

Bulow's Campaigns of Hohenlinden and Marengo . . 394

Massey's Sounding Machine 394

Occurrences at the principal Ports and Stations . . . 396

Commissions and Appointments in the Militia and Yeomanry Corps during the present year 424

Stations of the Army 427

Progress of Perfection and Prospects of Peace . . 433

Position and Duties of the United Service . . 440

Punishment in the British Army 450

Log of the Louisa, or the Trip to Berlin . . 460

Recollections of a Sea Life 481

The Voyage of Hanno 490

Memoir of the Services of the late Rear-Admiral Sutton . 499

Memoir of the Services of the late Lieut.-General Hart . 501

Memoir of the Services of the late Lieut.-General Baron Rottenburg 504

Trial of Mr. Beamish's New Construction of Vessel . 504

Remarks on Capt. Symonds's Observations on Naval Architecture 507

THE

UNITED SERVICE JOURNAL,

AND

NAVAL AND MILITARY MAGAZINE.

ON THE MEANS AND MAINTENANCE OF MARITIME SUPREMACY.

Of maritime powers England has long been, by the unanimous voice of nations, "facile princeps." Justly may we be proud of a title, which, we are well assured, is not the language of flattery or the homage of dependency, but a concession extorted purely by the superior fortune of superior merit. The preponderance of our naval strength, however, appears not merely when put into the scale against that of any existing state;—compared with the ocean-queen of any period since first the seas acknowledged a ruler, Britannia wields a more commanding sceptre, occupies a more stable as well as more gorgeous throne. Maritime supremacy, indeed, though in every instance it has been the guardian and promoter of that commerce to which it owes its birth, as also the source of an influence and power far beyond all that could be derived from independent resources in the possessor, has, in the case of England, only demonstrated, by the proof of repeated experiments, that the dominion of the seas, when sustained by the fittest subsidiary means, may confer an ability and strength sufficient to overmatch as formidable an apparatus of hostility as the annals of the world can exhibit. For, we hesitate not to assert, that there were periods in the last French war, when, through the machinations of Napoleon, the combination of adverse force directed against our country equalled, if it did not exceed, all ever yet brought into operation at any one time, even at the overthrow of the greatest states or empires. In what circumstances, then, has the state of things originated, which seems to realize for England in so peculiar a manner the words of the French poet, "Le trident de Neptune est le sceptre du monde?" Great Britain must possess some important element of power, which belonged to no former "ruler of the waters," and we shall most probably arrive at the knowledge of it by tracing the history of maritime dominion in some of its grand outlines.

Let us go back to the people who first acquired a name for naval enterprise, the Phœnicians. Abundant proof yet remains, notwithstanding the loss of their annals, to corroborate the allusions made in scripture to the extent of their commerce, the profusion of their riches, and particularly to the splendour and magnificence of "the crowning city, whose merchants were princes, whose traffickers were the honour-

able of the earth." The concurrent testimony of Herodotus, Aristotle, Strabo, and others the most accredited authors of antiquity on this point, harmonises perfectly with the inspired record. The Phœnician territory, small as it was, was partitioned among several petty kingdoms, of which the chief were Tyre and Sidon. The Sidonians figure in the works of Homer as having obtained the palm for superior excellence in the elegant as well as useful arts, even prior to his time. At the building of the temple, which preceded the Homeric age by about a century, and the commencement of the Christian era by above a thousand years, the assistance which Solomon received from the King of Tyre shows, that this city was, at a very early period, in an advanced state of civilization. She had established her authority too, even then, over Sidon, though of far greater antiquity, and probably over all Phœnicia. But it is under the character of enterprising and intrepid navigators that the Tyrians have been transmitted through the whole succession of history; and even at this day is there sufficient evidence to vindicate their title to a fame so extensive and durable, and to excite admiration and amazement at discoveries prosecuted under so many disadvantages. From Scripture we learn, that they had so early acquired celebrity by their distant voyages, as to cause application to be made to them for pilots, acquainted with the navigation of the Red Sea, to conduct the Jewish fleet to Ophir, fitted out in the reign of Solomon. Quintus Curtius says their colonies were spread almost over the whole world. Carthage we may mention as one the most famous, and which, whether or not it had a previous existence, was certainly indebted to Tyre for the origin of its greatness. That Cadiz was another settlement of Tyrians, we can state on the valuable authority of Aristotle, who also informs us that they had long carried on an extensive trade in the precious metals with Spain, and that afterwards, wishing to possess themselves of the country in the neighbourhood of the colony, they became involved in a war with the natives, and were obliged to call in the assistance of Carthage. We will not go into the various arguments adduced by antiquarians to prove that these fearless voyagers visited even the British shores, but, in our opinion, to deny the fact after an examination of the evidence for it, requires a good deal of scepticism. Whether history, with equal truth, attributes to the Tyrians the first circumnavigation of Africa in the reign of Pharaoh-Necho, the Egyptian king, is still disputed; but when we call to mind their intimate acquaintance with the Red Sea certainly, and probably with other eastern seas, and recollect that they were in the habit of passing the straits of Gibraltar and sailing to a great distance from the mouth of the Mediterranean; and when we consider, moreover, that the whole of the voyage in question could have been accomplished by coasting—a species of navigation in which the Phœnicians, no doubt, surpassed every nation since—we see enough to establish at least the possibility of the Portuguese not being the first nation of northern latitude to double the Cape of Good Hope. Exclusive, however, of this debateable ground, a large and ample field of undisputed history remains, where we may yet collect traces of what Tyre was, ere she ceased to be "the pride of all glory." To what a height must she have risen through the exertions and industry of a people, who, destitute of all the helps considered so indispensable to modern navigation

—without compass, or charts, or instruments, had notwithstanding the sagacity, intrepidity, and enterprise, to spread their adventurous sail over so many distant and unknown seas?

But the question which has most interest for us is, what acquisition of strength the Tyrians derived as a political body from their maritime eminence; what elevation they were thereby enabled to attain in the scale of national rank; what place to assume among important and powerful states. That the authority of Tyre extended over all Phœnicia in the time of Solomon, we have intimated as probable; but even supposing—what history hardly permits us to do—that this was generally the case, the entire resources of this country would seem inadequate, however increased or multiplied by naval and commercial power, to form the basis of anything like a great empire. A population so small, and so devoted likewise to the pursuits of trade, could not by any possibility have supplied armies sufficient to defend their territories against every powerful invader whom their very wealth would invite to the attack; still less have afforded means to increase their dominions, or even retain for any length of time those colonies first planted by themselves. This conclusion, to which we would come merely from considering the natural capabilities of Phœnicia, corresponds with all we can learn of the history of Tyre in her foreign and external relations. She became a grand object of hostility to three of the greatest conquerors of antiquity—to Shalmaneser, head of the Assyrian empire, then the most powerful in the world, and author of Israel's captivity; to the mighty monarch, who established Babylonian ascendancy on the ruins of Nineveh; to Nebuchadnezzar, the subverter of the throne of Judah, the tarnisher of Egypt's glory; and lastly to the royal hero of Macedon, who continued his rapid course of victory from the waters of the Archipelago to the banks of the Indus. The Tyrians sustained the conflict with the overwhelming force brought against them by each of those formidable antagonists, in a manner that at once illustrates the inestimable advantages of naval dominion, and exhibits at the same time, in a striking point of view, the effect of those peculiarities of situation, whereby these sovereigns of the ocean were left in a great measure at the mercy of every invader. Every attempt of the Assyrian king against Tyre was ineffectual; he had to abandon the fruitless and inglorious enterprise, and the proud city still triumphed in her independence. The perseverance of the Babylonian monarch, however, at length brought her low; but it was only after the powerful energies of his mind, and the interminable resources of his empire, had been for thirteen years unceasingly directed to the one object. Her most fatal enemy was the Grecian conqueror; and yet her fearlessness in entering the lists even against such an antagonist, her resolution in the struggle, and her success in defeating for seven months the utmost exertions of one, the instant exhibition of whose strength had sufficed for victory in every former contest, all show, ineffectual though they were to avert her destiny, what she might have become, had she been but possessed of the means necessary to make maritime superiority productive of its most beneficial results. But the deficiency under which she laboured, appears even from her adoption of the same species of resistance against each of her successive enemies. On each occasion, the Tyrians seem to have proposed to themselves as

the sole end of all their efforts, the security of their city; and they acted evidently under the impression, that an attempt to defend any other part of their dominions would have utterly failed. If we seek for the reason of their conduct, we find it at once in their inability to raise an army out of their own population. Large bodies of mercenaries they were well able to keep in pay; and that they did so, we have clear evidence in the address directed by the prophet Ezekiel with so much poetical beauty to their city: "They of Persia, and of Lud, and of Phut, were in thine army, thy men of war." But experience had already taught them, perhaps, that the state which rests its hopes of security on the venal services of a mercenary soldiery, having with it no community of feeling, no identity of interests, leans on a reed, not to be exposed to the shock of any violent collision. The same cause which made Tyre weak in the defence of her original territory, put it also out of her power to maintain any permanent control over those distant settlements to which she had transferred part of her own people; and accordingly the colony at Cadiz had no sooner risen to importance, and made exertions to extend its authority over the contiguous country, than the Tyrians found themselves unable to keep their ground without assistance from Carthage, once peopled itself from Tyre, but now quite independent, and even destined in time to eclipse the parent state.

The spirit of commercial enterprise, which Carthage inherited from her founder, soon raised her to eminence. The extensive trade which she carried on, not only with the interior of the continent on which she stood, but with every part of the coast, and all the considerable islands of the Mediterranean, was productive of the most valuable fruits—wealth, naval power, the spread of her empire in Africa, and the acquisition of foreign dominion. A treaty made with the Romans in the year of the expulsion of their kings, proves her to have been even then in possession of Sardinia and parts of Sicily; and twenty-eight years after we find her considered a power of such importance, as to induce the Persian monarch to court her alliance, and request the aid of her services towards the furtherance of the expedition against Greece. According to the agreement with Xerxes, Carthage was to attack the Greek settlements in Sicily; and her very first expedition in pursuance of this object excites astonishment at the vast extent of her resources. Two thousand ships of war, with three thousand transports, are recorded to have sailed for this island, and landed 300,000 troops,—an amount of force which would quite stagger belief, did we not recollect that the immense wealth of Carthage was devoted almost exclusively to the maintenance of her fleets and armies. Her operations in reference to Sicily at later periods, were conducted on a similar scale of magnitude, and continued with little intermission, till the star of Rome gained the ascendant, and in the end totally eclipsed the most illustrious of her rivals. From the period of her first introduction into Spain, when the Tyrians entreated her interference in favour of their colony at Cadiz, Carthage had kept up a commercial intercourse with the natives, and the produce of the Spanish mines was always one great source of her opulence; but the conquest of the country was scarcely attempted till the time of Hamilcar, and only completed by his son, Hannibal. No part of Carthaginian, we might perhaps say,

of any history, excites a more powerful interest than the life of this illustrious general. It is superfluous for us to follow him in his march from subjugated Spain through Gaul and over the Alps into Italy; to trace him as he proceeds from victory to victory, avenging the wrongs of his country and inflicting a terrible castigation on Roman insolence and injustice; or to let our sympathy go with him from his first reverse of fortune, till he finds death the only retreat from a vindictive enemy—to enter into the details of a life so familiar to every reader is, we say, unnecessary, and we only allude to it here, as reflecting a useful light over the whole history of Carthage. It often struck us with surprise, that, after all the mighty preparations and extraordinary exertions of this power to bring Sicily under subjection, the Carthaginian arms had still made so little progress towards the conquest of the island. Fleet after fleet arrived, army succeeded army, and troops landed on its shores literally by hundreds of thousands, and yet the whole fruit of these great and long-continued efforts was the capture of a few cities. The armies, which fought with such repetition of ill-success against the kings of Syracuse, were on some occasions at least, far superior in numbers to those which Hannibal led from triumph to triumph over the forces successively brought against him by the most warlike nations of Europe. How then is the bad fortune of the Sicilian campaigns to be accounted for? By the simple fact, that the troops which fought the battles of the Carthaginians were nearly altogether mercenaries collected from other nations, and who were always ready to serve under a state whose wealth promised large and regular pay. Carthage was thus able, on any emergency, to raise in a short period an army formidable enough as to numbers, but, we need scarcely add, in general greatly deficient in point of military qualifications. But the troops obtained in this way were not only disqualified from supporting her rights, and maintaining her cause in the field by want of the zeal as well as discipline of a permanent and national force,—they became likewise the direct and immediate authors of some of her greatest misfortunes.

A large body of these mercenaries, whose dissatisfaction was owing to some neglect in the payment of arrears, rose in insurrection at the conclusion of the first Punic war, and for three years and a half maintained a contest, during which the very existence of Carthage was at stake. About the same time, and from a similar cause, she lost Sardinia, one of her earliest acquisitions, and by far the most valuable of any she had then made. The troops quartered in that island caught the infection from their fellow-soldiers, who had mutinied in Africa, cast off their allegiance to the state which had purchased their services, gained over a new army which had come from Carthage to counteract their designs, murdered its general, and, in short, put a final period to the existence of Carthaginian dominion in Sardinia. Both these events were fresh in the memory of men, when Hannibal was first entrusted with power; and seem to have given this acute commander a complete insight into the defective mode of administration adopted by his country in regard to military affairs. Among the last measures undertaken previous to his departure for Italy, for securing the permanence of Carthaginian power in Spain, and guarding against the possibility of mutiny on either side of the Mediterranean during

his absence, one was—to transport the Spaniards, who had enlisted in great numbers under his victorious banner, into Africa, and supply their place by troops drawn from the Carthaginian dominions in that continent.

But independent of these precautions, the genius of Hannibal was itself an antidote to the evils which naturally resulted from entrusting an army of foreigners with the maintenance of a people's rights, or the vindication of their honour. Under such a general, a comparatively short period would do much towards transforming a mixed and heterogeneous mass into a regular and orderly body of disciplined soldiers; and still more, perhaps, towards gaining for him over all under his command, no matter how little known or attached to him before, that influence and ascendancy, the power of acquiring which is an eminently characteristic attribute of every great military leader. Hannibal, however, had full time both to perfect the discipline and possess himself of the confidence of the army, which he marched into Italy; and we may be certain that the success with which veterans who had so long served under his father and himself, disputed with the mistress of the world possession of even her central seat of empire, was nowise greater than they were entitled to, as well by their own merits as those of their incomparable commander. The achievements of this great man, which throw so pre-eminent a lustre over the declining glory of Carthage, prove to what a height of power and dominion she might have been exalted, had it not been for that capital defect in her military system which so often rendered her warlike operations feeble and ineffectual. The evils which resulted from depending on other people for the support of her rights in war, were no sooner neutralised by the energies and resources of one powerful mind, than, weakened as she had been by the disasters of her first war with the Romans, by the mutiny of her troops, and the loss of one of her most important possessions, she rose, as it were, with renovated strength, and having shown herself equal to the conquest of a country which, at a subsequent period, was among the very last to acknowledge even the supremacy of Rome, proceeded, in the occupation of the fairest provinces of Italy for sixteen years together, to give conspicuous proof how worthy she was to be the antagonist of the imperial city itself in the competition for empire.

If we pass from ancient to modern times, we find a state which seems the almost perfect counterpart of the one we have just been considering. It would be difficult to mention, besides Carthage and Venice, any two other powers whose respective histories present so many points of coincidence. They both derived their strength and importance from the same source, they both extended their dominions in the same way and by similar means, and the cause which mainly contributed to the fall of the one, beyond all dispute operated materially to the decline of the other. Venice had so early risen into consequence, that she was enabled to assume, from their very commencement, a prominent part in the crusades, and prove herself a powerful and useful auxiliary to the soldiers of the Cross, during the entire continuance of these wonderful expeditions, as remarkable for the pertinacity with which they were followed up, as for the misguided zeal in which they originated. To the assistance of the Venetians, who were

easily an overmatch for the Saracens at sea, was chiefly owing the success of the Christian arms on the coasts of Palestine and Syria. But these religious wars yielded to Venice a more substantial fruit than the harvest of empty glory,—her commerce was thereby extended, her power increased, and her dominions greatly enlarged. Her ships were employed—and, of course, she was well paid for the service—in transporting the armies of the Crusades, and supplying them with provisions. She obtained grants of the most important immunities in trade from other Christian powers; and her exertions, to which, in a great measure, the Latins were indebted for the capture of Constantinople, were rewarded by the acquisition of Candia and many of the most valuable Greek islands. Nearly thirty years before, she had gained the memorable victory over Frederic Barbarossa, Emperor of Germany, which made her Doge the wedded lord of the Adriatic; and now, about the commencement of the thirteenth century, when this revolution in the Greek capital took place so beneficial to Venice, we may consider her as entering upon her hour of meridian splendour. Her noontide glory, however, seems scarcely to have outlasted the century; for in the following one, in the course of the protracted war with the Genoese, she was reduced so low, as to send, after the defeat at Pola, an embassy empowered to agree to any terms the enemy might prescribe, only guaranteeing the independence of Venice. She afterwards, indeed, recovered herself; and the contest, which had been continued for nearly a century and a half between the two rival republics, ended in the year 1381, in the acknowledged superiority of the Venetians: but the exertions of the long struggle appear to have exceeded the measure of her strength; and the result, though it gave her a complete monopoly of the commerce of southern Europe, added little to the stability of her power. Her still increasing trade, it is true, continued, for many years to come, a fruitful source of opulence and splendour; but, as we have said, she had already, in the thirteenth century, reached the utmost limit of her political ability.

The discovery then of a passage to the East by doubling the southern point of Africa, though it put an end to the exclusive commercial intercourse of Venice with India, could not have been the sole, if even the principal, cause of the decline of this republic. Her trade never flourished so much as in the interval between the termination of the Genoese war and the concluding part of the fifteenth century, when the Portuguese announced to Europe their important discovery; and yet in this long period we find no great accession to her empire, nor have we even ground for supposing that her former acquisitions became in the mean time more consolidated or better secured. A reference to her subsequent history appears to lead to a very different conclusion, and, to our apprehension, indicates a want of that youthful vigour which animated her efforts in earlier times. We need only instance the war in which the league of Cambray involved her, soon after the beginning of the sixteenth century, and by which she was quickly brought to the very brink of ruin. Nothing could have saved her, but the divisions which broke out among the confederate powers, and gave her an opportunity of dissolving the league by negociation. It is thus evident that Venice had attained the zenith of her political importance long before she had arrived at the *maximum* of her commer-

cial prosperity, and consequently that other causes besides the fluctuations of trade must have influenced her decline. In fact, it is easy to discover the seeds of decay among her political institutions. Venice, though nominally a republic, was essentially an oligarchy; and with such jealous vigilance did the senate guard its possession of power, that, rather than entrust the citizens of any rank with the use of arms, they preferred that all military operations should be carried on by foreign mercenaries exclusively. All Venetians were alike excluded from the armies in the employ of Government, for the same selfish motives which rejected the populace from the ranks, were equally powerful to shut out the nobility from places of command. By a system of military administration which had proved fatal to the power of Carthage, the stability of Venice could not have been secured.

We have now glanced at some of the leading topics in the respective histories of three successive states, all of them the prototypes of England in commercial and naval eminence, and the two last in colonial dominion also. There is, however, a grand and important difference, whereby she is essentially distinguished from any of them; and even the hasty review we have made shows that it is this very peculiarity of circumstances which has enabled her to occupy a place far above what any of her maritime predecessors could ever have attained to. Great Britain possesses within herself—what none of them did—original, independent, and internal resources, sufficient of themselves to constitute the materials of a great empire. Not to mention Tyre—in extent of available territory, in amount of population, and the other *stamina* of national strength, she leaves even Carthage or Venice so far behind as to render comparison ridiculous. We are thus enabled, without impairing very perceptibly the productive powers of British industry, to support at all times, exclusive of our predominant naval force, a large military establishment—and on great emergencies it could easily be doubled—not connected for a time with the government by pecuniary considerations only, but permanently attached to the country by an identity of feelings, habits, and interests. It is to this source that we can trace the superior value of the maritime supremacy of England, compared with that of any antecedent nation in the page of history. Wherever the thunder of our navy could be heard, wherever the cannon of our ships could approach to beat down the front of opposition, the British bayonet was presented to force a passage; and the prowess of our soldiers completed and even extended the conquest which the bravery of our seamen had begun. The colonial acquisitions thus successively made, our armies have since kept secure, till at length our possessions in every part of the globe are so multiplied, that a British fleet in every ocean and every sea may receive shelter and supplies in a British harbour. This addition to our resources, arising from every new accession to our dominions, proves on how sure a foundation the power of England is built, how broad the basis whereby it is supported. Let us recollect, however, that the noblest fabric of empire, however firmly fixed, still continues to require undeviating attention and constant forethought: exposed as well to the assaults of violence as the vicissitudes of time, it is seldom long exempt from the necessity of repair, and, to supply the waste of damage or decay, a timely provision

of materials is at all times necessary. It is in the selection of these that sound judgment and nice discrimination are the most essential. The choice made by the several states to which we have referred was, we have seen, the same, and may have been the best possible in their peculiar circumstances; but the materials introduced were, in each instance, destructive of the political structure, whether it rested on the commerce of Tyre, or Carthage, or Venice. A similar selection on the part of England could not have the plea of necessity; and we hope, therefore, she will profit by the thrice-repeated lesson: at least let her not despise it. All history, the earliest as well as the most recent, is, if authentic, equally valuable to illustrate the good or evil consequences of all measures similar to those which it records. It is not an *old almanack*, whose worth is destroyed by time, but the experience of a world, where the human mind, the grand agent as well as the grand subject in all the revolutions of wealth and knowledge and power, must, however differently modified by diversity of circumstances, remain essentially the same, and where the same causes, without the interposition of Providence to change the order of nature, will ever continue to produce the same results. Let not then the thrice-told admonition have been given in vain—let England ever remember that her maritime strength possesses stability but so long as she places her "only hope of succour in native swords and native ranks."

CONSTANTINOPLE IN 1831.

FROM THE JOURNAL OF AN OFFICER.

THE changes effected both in the dress and manners of the inhabitants of Constantinople, and in the style of the city itself, since I last visited it in 1818, were to me most surprising and unexpected. Certainly the greatest portion of the imposing appearance of the Turks has been lost by the recent reform in their costume, which formerly was rich, elegant, and varied; but under their present Frank or European garb, they have become an ill-dressed, slovenly, nay, even in most cases, a ridiculously mean-looking race. The crimson stuffed cap (or fesk), surmounted by a blue spreading tassel, descends low on the eyebrows, and how deeply must its wearers sigh after the proud and fanciful turban. The younger and less respectable Turks, who have adopted the new costume, put on short round jackets with upright collars, buttoned to the chin, and, according to the season, wear very loose white calico or woollen cossack trowsers. The older and more respectable classes make use of loose, long surtout coats, with stiff straight collars; waistcoats, loose trowsers, and tie black shoes complete their dress; and sometimes a dirty white neckcloth is tied uncomfortably about their throats. To conceal, however, this cruel abolition of a beautiful national dress, a military cloth cloak is worn by the Effendis, which conceals the horrors of their present habiliments. So altered are the gentry of the new costume, that I should say,

their next step would be to turn Christians. The European dress was never intended for a Mohammedan or even an Asiatic. Tight shoes, long stockings, pantaloons, coats with no opening at the sleeves, must all be inconvenient, and may gradually diminish the strict observance of religious ceremonies and ablutions, which are likely to be neglected by their frequency, and when rendered more harassing by the embarrassments of dress, may soon be seldom performed.

It is astonishing the effect dress has on the habits of the human race: thus the Turks become more dignified and slothful than by nature they were intended to have been, because they could neither manage on foot the arrangement of their heaps of clothes, nor walk with comfort in their slippers. Since the tails of their coats have been clipped, certainly they move about with more activity. The sword is much more rapid in the work of conversion than the tongue. The Sultan uses the former weapon without any remorse, and it must be confessed after all, that the Turks are a dastardly people, easily intimidated, submissive, and cringing. This has become particularly apparent since the destruction of the Janisaries. I can scarcely comprehend by what means the Turks could ever have been successful in their campaigns against the Europeans. As men, we are their superiors in height, figure, bodily strength, and ever did, I should say, possess more innate courage; still Vienna, by a mere chance, escaped becoming a Pashalic of the Porte.

Military costume is the fashionable dress of the day, whilst all copying from the Sultan, wear their beards of the same length as his, and pull their fesks, or caps, equally low over their foreheads. The appearance of the troops, considering the disadvantages they labour under, is by no means so indifferent as might have been expected. Their headdress, the round red cap, is most unbecoming, and their arms, clothes, and shoes are far from good. They have attained that style of discipline and military knowledge which it is easy by dint of exertion to instill into soldiers, but I doubt if the European officers employed as instructors are capable of advancing their pupils farther in the scale of improvement. Perhaps, indeed, the government thinks enough has been effected, and considers their army to be in a high state of perfection, without being able to perform any combined evolutions. The corps of infantry I have seen are composed of very young men, who almost might be called boys; they go through the drill of a company tolerably well, and have evidently acquired a military deportment. The uniforms of the regiments differ; some have round cloth jackets with no facings; others have the cuffs, collars, and facings of the breast red. The national colour for the army is blue. Some corps are dressed better than others, and finer cloth is given to those forming the guard of the palace. With the exception of a few of the senior officers, none have beards; they are in general good-looking, seem to pride themselves on their dress, and are clean. In former days the grandees of the court used to keep in their employ large retinues of young men, who frequently were not of very reputable character; the Sultan ordered these swarms of idlers to be discharged, and being an intelligent, good-looking, and by no means a bigoted class, they served to officer the troops of the new regime. The distinction of rank throughout

the army is made apparent by stars of different metals, size, and value, attached to the left breast. Corporals and serjeants have brass stars, lieutenants and captains gold enamelled ones; majors the same, of a larger size; whilst the colonels have diamond stars, with gold or silver chains affixed to them, which hang from the front point of the shoulder.

The troops are constantly assembled in the splendid barracks built by the Sultan, are regularly paid, and well fed. Asia chiefly supplies the recruits; the muskets seem in general to be old ones repaired, excepting those of the palace guards, which are new, with much gilding on the barrels and on the blades of the bayonets. Some of the regiments have bands—that of the Sultan's is very numerous, and plays tolerably well, but their instruments are bad, sharp, and clamorous. The system of drill adopted is, I believe, French, and the officers employed are mostly of that nation. A M. Gallend, attached to the Sur Asker Pasha, or commander-in-chief, organizes the infantry, and M. Kelefso, a Sardinian, has charge of the cavalry. The latter is a favourite of the Sultan, and is said to be a person of talent and respectability. However, the situation of an European officer in the service of the Turks must be one of humiliation; formerly, they were not allowed to wear swords—they were not respected, which may arise from their individual characters, and the pay they receive is very small. Indeed, the system of the government always has been and ever will be illiberal, and it is astonishing how the Sultan ventures at particular periods to diminish the pay of his newly-raised troops, on whose fidelity and attachment his safety seems entirely to depend. When first the new system was established, the pay of each private was, I believe, forty piastres (ten shillings) a month, and has been reduced by degrees to less than thirty, which is a small pittance considering the habits of a Turk, who must smoke, sip coffee, and be comfortable. Twopence a day, about the amount of their present pay, will scarcely provide these luxuries, and these straitened means have occasioned universal discontent throughout the army. Several plots have already been discovered amongst the officers to create a revolution in the government; and after a certain time, when more union is established amongst the different branches of the army, it may become as ungovernable a body as the corps of Janisaries. In most countries the soldiery are the gayest and best dressed portion of the community, but in Turkey the case is quite different. The officers, as I before remarked, are often fine young men, and whilst passing their guard houses, I have been surprised at their ardour in learning their duty; the drill-book in manuscript was then produced, the battalion of sticks was speedily arranged, and columns were formed and deployments made in quick succession. On observing my comments, they have laughingly said, "Is that well done, captain?" The Turks, take them in the right way, are, I believe, a good-natured people, and I never saw a better-behaved body of men than the new troops; they are always ready to give every assistance to foreigners when required.

The city of Constantinople is much improved by being kept very clean, by the erection of new bazars, by the embellishment of the old ones, and by the guardianship of a very vigilant police. The streets are now free from all rubbish and offensive objects; no notice is taken

of foreigners; and even European females, without the slightest change of costume, may walk through every part of the city unmolested, and almost unobserved.

Last Friday we went to see the Sultan on his weekly visit to a mosque, to hear divine service. It was on the Pera side of the Bosphorus, near the Doolmæh Baghcheh; consequently less style and ceremony were observed, than is usual on such occasions within the city of Constantinople. About 500 infantry, with a powerful band, were drawn out in one line from the entrance of the place of worship to receive him. They must have been part of a select corps (probably the Boostenchees), since the men were very well dressed and remarkably good-looking, stout, and tall. They handled their arms well, and were steady.

We were placed under the veranda of a coffee-house, close to which the Sultan passed. His Majesty was preceded by six led horses, saddled and bridled in the European manner, with richly-embroidered shabracks; then came double files of mounted pages, dressed in various coloured jackets and white trowsers, officers of the household, aides-de-camp and other military attendants, and lastly the favourite Meer Allace, or General of the Guards, Hoosain Pasha. To these succeeded the Sultan, immediately followed by a personal guard of infantry, composed of remarkably fine, handsome young men. He wore the scarlet military cap, embroidered round the sides, and surmounted by a rich gold tassel, the long bullion of which hung like a fringe over its crown. A cloak of sky-blue cloth with straight embroidered collar, almost concealed his under-dress, a light-coloured cloth jacket, buttoned tight up to the chin, his gold-laced white kerseymere trowsers, and boots with spurs. On his left breast shone a most beautiful diamond star. His sabre and belt were European, as also his saddle and bridle. For a moment, I could scarcely place faith in my sight, so changed was this haughty monarch "of the sea and earth," from what I had seen him some years back, moving in the full awfulness of Asiatic majesty, to celebrate a festival at one of the mosques at Constantinople. The waving plumes of a multitude of shattars, or running footmen, then screened him from the gaze of his subjects; he was borne on by his horse, at a movement almost motionless; his eyes were fixed, countenance pale, gloomy, and most melancholy; and now I beheld this same powerful Sovereign, decked out in a flippant uniform, very similar to that of a light cavalry officer, with florid complexion, active, inquisitive gaze, and beard clipped almost close to his chin. I must say, Sultan Mahmood seemed to enjoy his emancipation from all the thraldoms of pomp and ceremony. In about half an hour the Sultan returned, and every part of the procession was managed without the slightest noise or confusion. We had time to examine the led horses, which were small pampered animals of some blood, but of little value.

If the Turks look mean, diminutive, and ill-made in their new costume, they certainly appear to still greater disadvantage when they ride on European hussar saddles. They can neither manage their horses, nor place their bodies or limbs in any good position, but go rolling along in the style of English sailors. The Sultan, however, certainly rides with grace and ease.

Though, I imagine, he must have moments of great uneasiness regarding his personal safety, he does not hesitate to move amongst the crowded streets, or apparently shun occasions when attempts might be made on his life. Great precautions are, I believe, taken against sudden tumults, and since the massacre of the Janisaries, the Sultan has seldom lodged within the walls of the old seraglio. He frequently changes his abode from one palace to another on the Bosphorus, and is building an entire new residence of immense extent on the Asiatic shores, about four miles above Scutari.

Persons, who, by a long sojourn in Constantinople, have acquired a considerable and more than superficial knowledge of Turkish affairs, assert that the late changes and ameliorations, instead of retarding, will accelerate the downfall of the Ottoman Government. They say that by destroying the Janisaries, by establishing a regular army, and by approximating the costume of his subjects to that of Europeans, the Sultan has principally had in view the acquirement of power without restraint, and a greater licence to indulge in excesses of every description; that the finances do not improve; that a system of debasing the currency is daily practised, by collecting the coinage of a few anterior years, remelting, and issuing it again in diminished value; that commerce is impeded by additional duties, and new monopolies of the staple commodities of the country are daily granted to his favourites and ministers. That the spirit of the people has been broken, and both national and religious feelings humbled and outraged, which tend to make the inhabitants of Constantinople indifferent to the faith professed by their ruler; and that consequently on the approach of an European invader, they will alone be spectators of the contest, and not, as in former days, rise in arms to defend their monarch and their religion. Time alone can prove the correctness of these assertions.

It is an arduous undertaking for a monarch endowed even with great wisdom and resolution, to reform a nation, particularly a nation professing the Mohammedan faith; yet, I should say, that much has apparently been effected in Constantinople; and judging superficially, one would deem it the capital of a prosperous and vigorous government. The public buildings are undergoing general repair, old edifices are removing to be erected anew, and everywhere there is a certain stir, denoting activity. Yet these signs of improvements are only observable in Constantinople, whilst the provinces are oppressed, misruled, and absolutely defenceless. If the system pursued by the Sultan does not produce the results anticipated by many, even to the regeneration of his people, certainly the body of the nation has been relieved from the insolence and lawless habits of the Janisaries, and those predatory bands of horsemen, the Dehlees and Hytees, like the former mercenary bands of Italy and France, no longer pillage and desolate the country. Criminals having lost the protection of that most powerful military order, the Janisaries, are now with facility seized and punished; and for years the Turkish empire has not been so tranquil, or so secure for foreigners, travellers, or merchants, as at the present period.

RUSSIA AND BRITISH INDIA.

When Louis the Fourteenth was supposed to aim at universal monarchy, almost all the nations in Europe armed and resisted his ambition, and their opposition was crowned with success. The Great Duke of Marlborough was particularly instrumental in the achievement of those victories which repelled the aggressions of the French King, and established the peace and security of Europe. If the attempts of Louis to subjugate neighbouring nations produced an universal alarm; and if the subsequent projects and conquests of Napoleon threatened the overthrow of all legitimate and established governments, and the destruction of public liberty,—and if all the sovereigns in Europe armed, resisted, and finally subdued the Despot, delivering France from tyrannical oppression, relieving their own States from the iron-influence of a conqueror, and restoring their independence,—it may be emphatically asked, what has occasioned their unaccountable inertness and inactivity whilst the Emperor of Russia, with equal ambition, and more tact than Louis the Fourteenth, has been extending his immense empire by the acquisition of Finland, Poland, parts of Turkey in Europe and Asia, and a considerable portion of the Kingdom of Persia.

In the early part of the reign of Peter the Great, there was no well-organized army in Russia: which was proved by the battle of Nerva, which was gained by Charles the Twelfth of Sweden, with 8000 men, over an army of 100,000 Russians; but war taught the Russians in their turn to beat the Swedes, and defeat Charles at the famous battle of Pultawa. Since that period, Russia has regularly advanced in population and aggrandisement, and presents at this moment a more threatening attitude than ever was assumed by any nation in the world, since the victorious period of Roman greatness. When Catharine the Second mounted the Russian throne, her subjects did not amount to more than twenty-one millions; but during her reign the population of the empire increased, by teritorial acquisitions, and natural causes, to upwards of thirty-five millions. And by the lowest calculation which can now be made from the late acquisition of territory, the population of Russia cannot amount to less than forty-five millions!

The Russian regular army consists of near seven hundred and fifty thousand infantry, cavalry, and artillery, and a militia of at least a million of men; and the population, the nature of the government, and the habits of the people, render it perfectly easy greatly to increase the disposable force, and augment the militia of the empire. That the Russian troops are well trained in the exercise of the musket, brave, and obedient, cannot be questioned; the writer of this paper has seen them in the field, and he cannot hesitate to give them due praise;—but though a few of their generals are pretty well acquainted with military tactics, amongst whom, Count Woronsoff may be fairly distinguished as an able, intelligent, and active general officer, yet very few others claim distinction, and the battalion officers are extremely deficient in tactical knowledge; but they are brave and steady, and were they opposed to English or French troops for a few campaigns, they would, no doubt, soon acquire the requisite military information. It is not in warfare against the Turks, or the Persians, that Generals and officers of all ranks, can obtain important military knowledge. Had Napoleon been able to renew the invasion of Russia, after his retreat from Moscow, another campaign would have taught the Russian Generals, probably, to conquer in their turn, and terminate the war by an event similar to that which took place at Pultawa.

The Russian fleet is now upon the best footing; and having acquired under the instruction and command of British Admirals, and other naval officers

of knowledge and ability, considerable nautical experience, as was evinced by the manner in which the Russian ships took their stations, and fought at Navarino, there can be no question but that the naval force of the Emperor Nicholas is extremely formidable.

The intimate connexion which has been established between Holland and Russia, is another ground for alarm. The Dutch fleets have always been well equipped and admirably commanded, and the late separation of Belgium from Holland, and the unquestionable attachment of the Emperor Nicholas to King William, leave little doubt that, in case of war, the Russian and Dutch fleets would form an united navy, opposed to that of Great Britain.

The late severe restrictions imposed by Russia upon British commerce, indicate no very friendly feeling; and the approach of Russian outposts towards our Indian possessions, though there are still considerable obstacles to their farther advance, should induce Great Britain to consider seriously and attentively the dangers which may menace our Indian empire.

It is well known to generals of information and experience, that there is much hazard in acting upon a long line of operations. This difficulty was felt by the Roman Emperor Julian in his war against the Persians: it was experienced by Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden; and by Charles the Twelfth: it was fatal to Napoleon in Russia, by ultimately destroying his army: and it has in almost every instance been productive of the worst consequences to the army engaged in such operations. But Persia may become the ally of Russia, and greatly facilitate her operations.

The allied armies, it is true, advanced to Paris, and occupied the capital; but could that have been accomplished, had the French people been united, and determined to defend their country? With about 60,000 veteran troops, Napoleon for some time baffled the operations of the allied forces, three times more numerous than his own, and made such an impression on the Emperor Alexander, that he repaired personally to the head-quarters of the Austrian General, and earnestly requested that he would send to Chatillon, and sign a treaty of peace with the French negociator. Napoleon's activity and success accomplished this extraordinary change in the conduct of the Emperor, but an unfortunate movement by the French army left the route to Paris open, and the defection of Marshal Marmont, and departure of the Empress, rendered all farther resistance in the capital useless; and the kingdom of France abandoned their Sovereign, and submitted to the allied arms. It is probable that, had Marshal Marmont held out, and the city of Paris refused to yield, the allied armies, reduced to less than 130,000 men, would have been obliged to retire. It is said the march upon Paris by the Austrian army was suggested and pressed upon Prince Swartzenburgh by the late Marquis of Londonderry, who was then principal Secretary of State, and present at Chatillon. Perhaps he was privately acquainted with the sentiments of the Parisians, and recommended the advance on Paris accordingly; be this as it may, the operation was vitally hazardous, and never could have been advised by an experienced general, unless he had a strong supporting corps, and a competent supply of all the munitions of war; but at this moment the Austrian army were cut off from their magazines by Napoleon.

Let us look now at the actual situation of the Russian empire. Her frontier on the European side stretches from the extremity of Finland, embracing the Baltic Sea, to near Tilsit, comprehending Poland, and running along Austrian Galicia to the Black Sea, which she has at her entire command; then extending her dominion into Asia, becomes mistress of the Caspian Sea, and opens a direct route to our possessions in the East. The communication with China has been long established, and the late disagreements between the Chinese and the British residents at Canton, will proba-

bly be found to originate in Russian influence. At all events, it becomes the true policy of Great Britain to strengthen her Indian empire on the side of Persia, in order that no surprise may take place, and, therefore, eligible positions should be selected, well fortified, and strongly garrisoned. The army in India is composed of European and native troops. Whether this army shall continue under the direction of the East India Company, or become what all our armies should be, the soldiers of the British Crown, will depend on the terms upon which their charter may be renewed: at all events, the security of our possessions in that quarter is of the utmost national importance, and demands immediate attention. It is true, the line of operations from Petersburgh, or Moscow, to our Indian frontier, is long; but suppose Persia subdued, or completely under the influence of Russia, magazines could be established on selected routes, and an army of 300,000 men might be moved in separate columns, and simultaneously operate on the Indian frontier. Such an immense force could, without doubt, be put in motion by the Russian Government, and regularly supported by the great magnitude of the population. A Russian army costs so little to the state, that a military chest necessary for 20,000 British troops, would maintain 150,000 Russians.

The strength of the British Indian army is represented as amounting to 250,000 men, but this seems to be a very high estimate. It does not appear from the history of our military operations during the last thirty years, that either the Marquis Cornwallis, Gen. Harris, the Marquis of Hastings, or Lord Combermere, had ever in the field above 25,000 fighting-men. It is true, the followers of an army in India are very numerous, being generally three times the number of the effectives; but the actual number of swords and bayonets must determine the strength and efficiency of an army.

In the wars against Tippoo Saib, Holkar, and lastly against the Burmese, the forces employed on these occasions appeared to be scarcely adequate in numbers to the service upon which they were employed. The Marquis Cornwallis was obliged, after advancing to Seringapatam, to destroy his cannon, and retreat; and Sir Archibald Campbell, in his operations against the Burmese, did not seem to have quite an adequate force, otherwise his advance might have been more rapid and successful.

Should Russia become the open enemy of Great Britain, and her disposition is certainly equivocal, it behoves the present Government to look with serious attention to our Indian Empire, and adopt such early measures as will defeat all the hostile attempts of an enemy, and place our Persian frontier in a proper state of security.

Many well-meaning persons clamour about a standing army, but the day is long past when the British troops were considered enemies to our free constitution, and to public liberty. They are officered by gentlemen of rank, of education, and of property—who in personal character, through all their grades, stand far above the officers of every other army in Europe. The British forces should not be reduced in number; our regiments are too weak, and ought to be augmented, and if a reduction of expense should become necessary, let it take place in the upper staff of the army; but let the veteran infantry—the pillars of the state—be constantly protected from injury and diminution.

ALFRED.

MEETING BETWEEN THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF INDIA AND RUNJEET SINGH, LORD OF THE PUNJAB.

THE following animated account of an event which has excited great and general interest throughout our Indian possessions, is taken from the Calcutta Government Gazette, with a copy of which we have been favoured.

On a subject of such general interest as the interview between the Governor-General of British India and a chief of such celebrity as Maharaja Runjeet Singh, the Ruler of the Punjab, the observations of a not inattentive spectator will, perhaps, be acceptable to public curiosity.

The preliminary arrangements having been settled by written communications, through the channel of Capt. Wade, the Political Assistant, the Governor-General and family left Simla on the 19th October, and proceeded, by a new road through the hills, to Ramgurh and Nalagurh, two hill forts, which were taken by Sir D. Ochterlony from the Goorkhas in 1814-15. On the evening of the 22nd the Governor-General rode from Nalagurh to Roopur, where the camp had arrived the day before by another route. Roopur is the principal place of residence of Sirdah Bhoop Singh, one of the protected Sikh chiefs. It is a dilapidated brick town, with a small but picturesque fort, situated on the left bank of the Sutlej, on a rising ground overlooking the river, which, at sunset, is seen from its towers winding like a silvery snake through the apparently interminable plains to the westward. On the opposite bank of the Sutlej the eye rests upon a range of low hills, formed of sand and sandstone, thinly sprinkled with herbage. Upon a confined plain, which slopes down to the river, the Lord of the Five Rivers encamped under a royal salute, with about 10,000 of his choicest troops. On the morning of the 25th a deputation, consisting of Gen. Ramsay, Mr. H. T. Prinsep, the Principal Secretary, with the Governor-General, Major Benson, his Lordship's Private Military Secretary, and Majors Maclachlan and Caldwell, was immediately despatched by the Governor-General to congratulate his Highness on his arrival; while a similar deputation, on the part of Runjeet Singh, came to enquire after the health of the Governor-General. The latter party consisted of Raja Konwur Kurk Singh, the eldest son of the Maharaja, with six Sikh Sirdars of distinction,* and Fuqueer Azeez-oo-Deen, his Highness' physician, philosopher, euphuist, and secretary. Mr. Pakenham, his Lordship's Private Secretary, Mr. Ravenshaw, Deputy Political Secretary, and Capt. Higgenson, aide-de-camp, were appointed to meet the deputation, and conduct it to the presence of the Governor-General. There was little in the personal appearance of Konwur Kurk Singh to indicate his fitness to be the successor of his father as ruler of the turbulent Sikhs. He is a plain, dark, and apparently an uneducated man, with a dull expression of countenance; his knowledge of languages is apparently confined to that of Punjabee, as he did

---

* Rajah Sungut Singh, of Jain; Rajah Atta Singh, of Sindha; Rajah Gholab Singh; Sirdar Huree Singh; Dewan Mootee Ram.

not seem to understand a syllable of the conversation which was addressed to him in Hindoostanee. Fuqueer Azeez-oo-Deen, however, was an able interpreter of his sentiments, or, in their default, of the sentiments which he ought to have entertained and expressed on such an occasion. All the flowers and tropes of the poets of Asia, all the powers and beauties of nature and art, were put in requisition by the Fuqueer to express the feelings of delight with which the Maharaja contemplated the approaching interview. The showers of friendship had cooled the oppressive heat of the two previous days—and the balmy zephyrs from the Himala of mutual esteem, had refreshed the hearts of the two potentates which were panting to be united.

This union was spoken of as the fruit of the tree of friendship, which, planted by Sir C. Metcalf in 1808, had grown and flourished for the last twenty years.

The following morning having been fixed for the Maharaja's first visit to the Governor-General, Gen. Ramsay, Major Lockett, and Mr. Ravenshaw were directed to proceed to his Highness' tents, and accompany him to the English camp.

A bridge, composed of twenty-six flat-bottomed boats of the country, similar, perhaps, to those which, two thousand years ago, conveyed the army of Alexander down the Hydaspes, was constructed across the Sutlej (here about one hundred and twenty yards wide), at the same spot where tradition relates that Nadir Shah crossed this river on his return from the sack of Delhi.

The Maharaja issued from his tents a little after sunrise, with an immense Suwaree of elephants, richly caparisoned, and bearing on their gilded howdahs all the principal rajas and sirdars of his court. Six battalions of his infantry formed a street leading down to the bridge. Here a considerable delay in the progress of the *cortège* occurred, as the bridge being made of rather slight materials, not more than five or six elephants could be allowed to cross at the same time. The whole of Runjeet Singh's cavalry, consisting of about 3000 of his ghore-churra, or garde-du-corps, and 800 of Mons. Allard's dragoons, first passed the bridge, and formed on the opposite side in a street, extending a distance of about three quarters of a mile.

The ghore-churras were dressed in loose garments of yellow silk, and were armed with spears, matchlocks, pistols, and bows. The chiefs appeared cap-a-pie, wearing round polished-steel helmets, surmounted with heron plumes, and burnished cuirasses, arm-pieces, and glaives, many neatly inlaid with gold.

The Maharaja eat his breakfast while crossing the bridge, and then headed the procession up the street formed by the troops, preceded by Khoshal Singh, the Commander-in-chief of his forces, and his Chamberlain, Raja Dhion Singh, both prancing before him on gaily caparisoned chargers, and ready to execute his commands. The troops, as he passed, rolled up on either side, forming, as it were, two expanding wings to the Eagle of the Punjab, who watched and directed all their movements himself, waving them back when their eagerness led them too much in advance, and urging them forward into line when broken and disordered, or fallen at all into the rear. It was an interesting spectacle to observe this famed chieftain regulating,

with voice and hand, the motions of a part of the warrior host he had so often led to victory and conquest. The scenery, as they approached the Governor-General's camp, was in accordance with the picturesque character of the procession.

A fine open plain sweeps up from the river, and is bounded, at the distance of about eleven or twelve miles, by a range of low hills, dotted here and there with temples and tombs, at the extremity of which is situated the town and fort of Roopur. At the base of these hills, on the summit of the sloping plain, appeared the camp, with its white pyramids of canvass, laid out in streets running back towards the hills, and their front tents forming a line facing towards the river.

To the north, the Himalaya bounded the view; its snowy peaks glittering in the morning sun; and the white buildings of Nalagurh were distinguishable on the lower range, though at the distance of eleven miles.

The troops which formed the Governor-General's escort on this occasion, consisted of eight guns of horse artillery, two squadrons of the lancers, His Majesty's 31st infantry, the 14th and 32nd native infantry, and two squadrons of Colonel Skinner's horse; and were drawn up in a fine street of about sixty yards wide, to receive and salute his Highness on his approach and entrance into the camp. On proceeding up the line, and observing His Majesty's 31st foot, he moved close up to them, and continued for some minutes attentively examining the corps, which was the first European regiment he had ever seen under arms. The Governor-General's Suwaree now appeared approaching from the other end of the street, and on the two parties meeting, the Maharaja stepped into his Lordship's howdah, and the usual embrace was exchanged between them. On alighting, the Maharaja and his principal chiefs were conducted into the first of the state tents, where several of the officers of the escort and suite were introduced to his Highness: after this ceremony, a select number of his Sirdars accompanied him into an adjoining tent of equal size, connected with the first by a covered passage. Here his Highness being handed to a chair at the right of his Lordship, folded his legs up under him, in the attitude of Boodha seated upon his lotus throne. The Lion of Lahore is about fifty years of age, diminutive in stature, and emaciated in person. The small-pox has deprived him of his left eye; his remaining one is prominent, cool, and intelligent. His forehead being completely covered by his yellow silk turban, it was impossible to ascertain its character. His nose is not of the sharp form which usually characterises the Sikhs, but is slightly *retroussé*. His mouth is well formed, and his chin dignified with the honours of a long grey beard. He was dressed, like his followers, in yellow silk, this colour and green being termed "*Busuntée*," or the livery of spring, which the Maharaja directed all his court, male and female, to wear as an emblem of joy, and an outward visible sign, that the tree of friendship planted between the two states was in its spring, putting forth the green leaves and yellow blossoms of mutual courtesy and civilities, the promise of good fruit and prosperity hereafter to both countries. Such was the mortal habitation of that active mind which for the last thirty years has soared above his contemporaries, subdued all the inde-

pendent chiefs of the Punjab under his sway, and curbed with a firm but delicate hand, the insolent and ambitious fanaticism of the Akalees.

After the usual compliments, it was to be expected that he would exhibit some scintillations of a master spirit. All ears were directed to catch the revelations of the oracle; a pause ensued, his lips moved —"Lord Sahib kooch peea?"* which hardly requires to be translated, burst through the folds of his mustachios. A discussion of the comparative merits of wines of the two countries ensued, during which his Highness observed, that the English wine was the foot soldier, but the Lahore wine (which is about three times as strong as whiskey) the horse; and that for his part, not being particular, he preferred the latter.

Talking of the present meeting, he said that on every important crisis when human reason was baffled to penetrate into the future or decide on the right course of action, it was the custom of the Sikhs to consult the Holy Scriptures of the Grunth, after the manner of the Roman Sortes Virgilianæ. That when Holkar solicited his joining in the league against the English, as also on the present occasion, the Oracle had enjoined him to do nothing displeasing to the British Government, but ever to cultivate its friendship. To this it was replied, that human reason and foresight might often prove as good oracles as the Grunth. Curiosity appears to be a principal feature of the Maharaja's character; his enquiries on all subjects were incessant, but were chiefly directed to details respecting the management and discipline of the army.

At his particular request, Gen. Adams, Mr. Clerk, political agent at Umballa, Capt. Kennedy, the local agent at Sobathoo, and other officers of whom he had heard, were introduced to him; after which the principal Sirdars who attended him, were introduced to the Governor-General.

The European band of His Majesty's 31st, and that of the Governor-General, which were placed in adjacent tents, called forth his warmest eulogiums and those of his son Kurk Singh, and as a substantial token of his admiration, he made them a present of 2000 rupees. The usual trays were then laid out, which contained, among other valuable European articles, two very handsome thoroughbred English horses, from the Hissar stud. The Maharaja took leave of the Governor-General, apparently much gratified by his visit. On returning down the line of troops, he stopped his elephant before one of the native infantry regiments, seemingly examining their accoutrements and bearing.

On the morning of the 27th, Kurk Singh, with a party of Sirdars, came to conduct the Governor-General and his suite to the tents of Runjeet Singh. The lancers and the body guard formed the Governor-General's escort on this occasion, which having crossed the bridge of boats, formed in line on the opposite bank at some little distance from the river. When the Governor-General's cortège came up, the Maharaja was observed on his elephant, within a few yards in

* This may be translated,—"Is your Lordship fond of the bottle?"—Ed.

front of the lancer corps, attentively inspecting them through a telescope; and so absorbed was he in the contemplation, that it was some minutes before he could be made to understand that the Governor-General had arrived. The cavalcade moved on, preceded by the mounted lancer band, which awoke the delighted echoes of the hills, through which the road here winds, with such refined strains as could never before have enlivened their solitude. Two battalions of infantry, under the command of Mons. Court, formed a street to the two gates, or triumphal arches, leading to the Royal Pavilion. Kanauts of crimson cloth on the outside and yellow silk within, formed a quadrangular enclosure round the Maharaja's tents, of about two hundred yards square. The arched gateways were similarly covered with cloth of the same colour, relieved by yellow embroidery—and golden spires on the summits. The exterior of the Pavilion was of the same colour, mounted with neat borders of yellow cloth. A long open arcade, composed of a number of connected semianas, formed the approach to the tent. Chairs were placed on either side of this arcade, where the Governor-General and his suite were requested to take their seats. The ground was spread with silks and Persian carpets of the most beautiful patterns and finest description, and the semianas overhead were lined with cashmere shawls fringed with gold. But the interior of the pavilion, adopting the language of Fuqueer Azeez-oo-Deen, would silence even the nightingale of the garden of eloquence! The lining and kanauts were of crimson velvet, richly embroidered with gold in a variety of neat patterns—and in the centre of the tent was a small pavilion of crimson velvet so richly embroidered with gold, pearls, and precious stones, that the velvet was scarcely distinguishable. This costly bower served to conceal the cushioned throne of the Maharaja from vulgar eyes.

There were two very pretty but small shawl pavilions, one on each side of the large tent. In the front of that to the right was standing a picturesque group of the ghore-churra chiefs, dressed chiefly in yellow silk, but many of them armed like Paladins, with bows, spears, matchlocks, and every variety of weapon.

The tent on the left was filled with equally formidable corps of amazons, whose arrows, shot from their *beaux yeux*, doubtless committed great havoc among the warriors of the Punjab.

The Maharaja, on the present occasion, was dressed in green silk. The only jewels he wore were diamonds; a sprig of diamonds, in the shape of a flower, projected horizontally from his turban, and in the centre of an armlet, composed of three diamonds, was the famous Koh-i-noor, or "Mountain of Light," which formerly shed its beams from the summit of the Peacock Throne of Dehlee. It is of an oval shape, cut like a brilliant, and is about the size of an egg, or about one inch and a quarter in length by one in breadth, and half an inch in height or depth. The diamonds on each side of it are also very large, and are cut in the shape of a heart. The three are set in plain gold with an enameled border, on the principle, I imagine, that it is folly to gild refined gold or paint the lily.

After the principal officers, civil and military, who had accompanied the Governor-General, had been introduced, the principal Sikh Chiefs

were presented to the Governor-General by Khoshal Singh and Raja Dhion Singh. Heera Singh, the son of Dhion Singh, a very pretty boy of eleven years of age, who is a great favourite of the Maharaja, sat at the feet of his patron on a gilt footstool during the ceremonies. After the above introduction had taken place, a company of the female battalion was ushered in, but we were disappointed to find that they were unarmed, except with their charms, and these were obscured by the silver leaf which it was their pleasure to daub in a circle round their eyes. Many of them were very fair and good-looking, and their dresses were gay as their calling. This exhibition concluded, the horses of the Maharaja, all splendidly caparisoned, were paraded before the tents and among them: astonished at his costly trappings of velvet and gold, stalked the huge shaggy-haired grey cart-horse, sent to Runjeet Singh by his late Majesty.

On the evening of the 28th, Runjeet Singh was invited to witness a review of the troops forming the escort of the Governor-General. He came dressed in green, and rode on the famous horse Kuhar, a dark bay, for the possession of which he made war on one of the chiefs of the Indus. The lancers rode past him in single file, so that he could examine each individual in succession—he handled one of their lances, but thought it too heavy to be wielded with effect. When the infantry formed into squares, he directed Khoshal Singh, his Commander-in-chief, to ride up and ascertain how many ranks knelt, and how many were standing; and observed, that though he had clouds of cavalry, it would be impossible for them to make any impression on such "a wall of iron" as was presented by the bristling bayonets. He appeared to take great interest in all the movements of the troops; and the only point in which they did not come up to his expectation was in the rapidity of their movements, which he had imagined to be much greater.

On the following morning, the 29th, the Governor-General went across the Sutlej to witness a review of his Highness's forces, amounting to ten or eleven thousand men. Upon entering the field, a brilliant spectacle presented itself. On the left, an apparently infinite line of cavalry was drawn up, consisting of five thousand ghore-churras dressed in yellow, interspersed at intervals with small bodies of Akalis, dressed in dark blue velvet, and high caps surmounted by quoits. On the right were six battalions of infantry, each one thousand strong. Their uniform is a red turban, red coat with black belts and yellow facings, and white trowsers. After these came the horse artillery, consisting of sixteen guns, the greater part brass, but about six of iron. The carriages were slight and the horses very indifferent. Mons. Allard's dragoons, about eight hundred strong, followed these. Their uniform is a steel helmet in the shape of a Sikh turban, red coats with black belts, white trowsers, and jack boots. Their arms, the spear, sword, carbine, and pistols.

The Maharaja had erected in the centre of the plain, a portable silver Bungalow, of two stories, in the front of which projected a handsome semiana, or awning, the ground being spread with rich carpets —here the Governor-General and Maharaja took their seats to see the review, in which the cavalry took no part. The manœuvres of the infantry were conducted with great steadiness and regularity. In march-

ing and firing, they are not excelled by any of the Company's troops, and their discipline is highly creditable to the Maharaja, considering the little assistance he has derived from European officers, and the unruly and bigoted spirits whom he had to tame and reconcile to the harness of discipline and regular habits. He says that he has twenty battalions of regular infantry similar to those reviewed, and one hundred guns—besides a large battering train and innumerable horse. With such an army, he is certainly more than a match for any power but our own in the East.

The Maharaja having invited the Governor-General to an evening party, his Lordship, accompanied by his family, and a number of ladies and gentlemen, went over about six o'clock. The tents were pitched on a rising bank within a hundred yards of the river, and the lands around it were metamorphosed by the skill of the gardeners of Lahore into verdant parterres, in which wheat, having been sown some days previous, now presented groups of green and growing figures of elephants, horses, deer, birds, &c. This garden was now brilliantly illuminated and decorated with artificial flowers, trees, golden cypresses, &c. tastefully arranged. The interior of the Pavilion, however, presented a scene of riches and splendour surpassing the descriptions of the palace of Haroon al Rashid, or of Solomon in all his glory. The floor was spread with cloth of gold, and within the gorgeous little Pavilion before described, were placed three circular seats, or thrones, sheeted with gold curiously worked. The centre was destined for the Maharaja, and one on either side for the Governor-General and Lady William Bentinck. Behind these thrones was a golden bedstead, inlaid with diamonds, emeralds, rubies, &c. in profusion. The tent was illuminated with golden candelabras. After inspecting this *chef-d'œuvre* of Oriental taste and magnificence, the party took their seats in the open arcade, or semiana before described, the principal personages being seated under a canopy, the richness of which is utterly indescribable. It consisted of one mass of jewels, of diamonds, pearls, rubies, emeralds, interwoven in various patterns so thickly, that the texture or nature of the cloth or silk on which they were worked, was quite indistinguishable.

The regiments of amazons soon made their appearance on this occasion, armed with bows and arrows, and headed by their commander-in-chief, the favourite of the day, who was distinguished by a crimson dress and white plume in the turban. There were three subordinate commandants, each distinguished by a white plume. After exhibiting their dancing for some time, the Maharaja ordered one of them to sing the song of the Hoolee, and a tray of round silver bowls, filled with gold dust and silver leaf pulverised, having been placed on a footstool before his Highness—the sport and the song commenced. The dancer and the Maharaja opened the campaign by pelting one another most vigorously with gold dust. Neither the Governor-General nor Lady William escaped, and the engagement soon became general, and ceased only when the silver bowls were exhausted, and the whole party were covered from head to foot with the glittering powder. The Maharaja suffered the most severely, for during his contest with the amazon, the latter contrived to throw a handful straight into his sound eye, which

nearly extinguished the luminary, and he did not completely recover from the wound during the rest of the evening.

After this sport a tray of wine and sweetmeats was brought in, and Runjeet Singh, with incessant importunities, pressed the Governor-General and his other guests to follow his example in drinking of the Lahore wine, which tasted very like whiskey, a pleasant flavour being substituted for the smoky taste of the latter. The Maharaja sent for all his finest jewels and exhibited them to Lady William. These consisted of the Koh-i-noor, above described, an immense round topaz about two inches in diameter, a very large irregular-shaped ruby, which had inscribed on it the names of seven monarchs to whom it had previously belonged; a long narrow emerald, about two inches and three-quarters in length, and several other curiosities. Under the exhilarating effects of the whiskey the Maharaja began to be quite elated, and repeatedly shook hands with Gen. Ramsay and Colonel Arnold, who were standing near him, begging them to eat, drink, and be happy. It was eight o'clock before he would allow the Governor-General to take leave and return to his camp to dinner. The fire-works, which were exploding all this time, were little attended to, so much did the little Lion of the Punjab attract the interest of his guests to himself.

On Monday, the 31st October, His Highness the Maharaja, came over at sunrise to witness a few field movements of artillery, and then to see howitzer practice at curtains; he was attended by a few favoured Sirdars, and appeared to observe the practice with intense interest. Three rounds were fired with grape-shot at 400 paces; the guns then retired to 600, 800, and 1000 paces respectively, and fired spherical case. The Maharaja examined the charges, the shot, and the level of the guns, and watched the effect, asking whether it would be possible for cavalry of any kind to advance up to guns so served: he then went up to inspect the curtains, and had the number of holes in a square counted. By his desire, two six-pounders were sent for and fired at a mark. Having expressed a desire to try his own prowess, he sent out a chatta* as a target, giving special directions that the *Busuntée* (yellow) side should not be presented in face of the gun. After ten minutes spent in laying the gun, with the assistance of all his Sirdars and Chamberlains, Runjeet gave orders to fire, and the ball went wide: he made one more trial, and failed; when he ordered our people to fire, and the chatta was knocked to pieces the third shot. After this exhibition had concluded, the Maharaja, in his turn, ordered a display of agility on the part of his chosen troops, differing in quality from the heavy resistless character of our feats of artillery, as much as the agile movements of Saladin from the motionless defence of Sir Kenneth. He had pegs driven into the ground for his spearmen to tilt at with their lances at full gallop. A bottle was placed to be broken, at gallop also, by his men and by Colonel Skinner's horse, with matchlocks. This amusement lasted for half an hour. A *lota*† was also placed on one of the pegs, to be cut at with a sword.

* A large umbrella carried by an attendant to keep off the sun.
† A small brass pot used for ablutions.

His Highness thinking his people less ready and expert than they ought to be, though on the whole they surpassed Colonel Skinner's men, rode out himself, and made a cut at the unfortunate brass-pot, but his sword went not near it! In conclusion, he was presented with a couple of six-pounders, with horses and complete equipments, and took his leave.

In the evening, Mr. H. T. Prinsep and Major Caldwell crossed the Sutlej to invite and escort the Chieftain of the Sikhs to an entertainment of leave-taking at the Governor-General's tents. He was brought over with due ceremonies, and seated at a banquet table of sweetmeats and liqueurs, among which the limpid essence of Geneva and the mountain dew of Caledonia seemed to meet with the most unqualified approval. A neat model of an iron suspension bridge in brass, ebony, and satin wood, executed by Capt. Baker, superintendent, which had just arrived in time to be put together for exhibition at this last interview, was presented and explained to his Highness, who was particularly pleased with it, and afterwards examined it more fully in another tent. He desired Monsieur Court, of his service, an officer educated at the Ecole Polytechnique, to take charge of it, and talked of ordering several such bridges from Calcutta.

A paper was then brought by Mr. Prinsep, and submitted for signature to the Governor-General, assuring the Maharaja of perpetual friendship. It had been his Highness's particular wish that such a document should be delivered to him from his Lordship's own hands at the parting interview, as a *yaddasht*, or memorial of friendship. Runjeet desired that it might be read, which was done, the Fuqueer Azeez-oo-Deen translating it sentence by sentence into simple barbarous Hindee, a tongue which did not admit of his usual garniture of florid rhetoric. Before the party broke up, Lady William Bentinck presented trays to his Highness, including a handsome musical box. With many declarations of everlasting friendship and professions of regret at parting, the arbiters of the destinies of India from the Indus to the confines of Ava, separated. His Highness said he could not bear to remain alone on the Sutlej, as it would remind him of the happiness he had experienced, and that as his Lordship moved east, he should return west next day, giving up his intended pilgrimage to Anundpoor Mukuwal.

Thus ended the imposing pageant of an eventful week, which embodied, as it were, those vivid dreams the imagination forms of the magnificent days of chivalry and "Fields of Cloth of Gold." The impression it made on the minds of all who beheld it, will, I doubt not, still further improve the good understanding and friendly feeling subsisting between the British Government and their able, powerful, and prudent ally—the Ruler of the Punjab.

SPECTATOR.

SKETCHES OF THE WAR OF THE FRENCH IN SPAIN IN THE YEAR 1823.

BY A ROYALIST.

NO. I.

THE operations of the French army which invaded Spain in the year 1823, under the command of his Royal Highness the Duke d'Angoulême, were attended with a degree of success so remarkable, and the political consequences which followed the termination of the war were of so important a nature, as to induce the writer of the following pages to imagine that an account of the war of the French in Spain in the year 1823, may be considered interesting both in a military and historical point of view.

It is proper to state, that he avows himself a party man, that is to say, he is a royalist;—and although neither his talents, his practice in writing, nor his leisure, would justify him in claiming, in the most remote degree, the character of an historical composition for his narrative, he will venture to affirm, that it possesses at least one requisite essential in the materials of all history, of which all the accounts of the war in question, which it has been his fortune to peruse, were deficient—namely, veracity; and emboldened by this consideration, he has come to the resolution of submitting these sketches to the public. In a narrative professing to treat exclusively of a campaign, a disquisition on the causes of the war, or as to its justifiableness, might most probably be considered out of place; and any allusion to the conduct of Ferdinand the Seventh, in rejecting the constitution promulgated for Spain by the Cortes in the year 1810, when he was restored to his dominions in 1813, although to this circumstance the war in question undoubtedly owed its origin, can only with propriety be of a very summary description.

The simple question however, as to how far the King of Spain was justifiable in taking such a step, may perhaps be permitted us; and in this case, we in turn may ask, what reason Ferdinand could have for supposing that the other powers of Europe would tolerate a democratic government in Spain in 1813, the existence of which, in 1823, they declared they would not permit? Farther, in 1813, what guarantee was there offered to Ferdinand the Seventh, that the greater part of the Spanish nobility, the whole of the clergy, and great part of the army and people, would not, as in 1820, have proved determinedly hostile to his acceptance of the system of the Cortes; or what rational grounds could he have for supposing, that this system was to work better for the interests of Spain in 1813, than it was found to do when ultimately forced upon his acceptance in 1820? And unless we can answer these questions, by proving that all the foregoing circumstances in reference to the Constitution of the Cortes, were essentially different in 1813 from what they were in 1820, there certainly appears a difficulty in maintaining that Ferdinand did wrong in declining to accept of the new Spanish Constitution, till such time as he was compelled by force to do so.

Evidence of the sagacity of the King, in perceiving that the con-

stitution of the Cortes was not calculated to benefit the real interests of his dominions, may be easily and shortly adduced;—thus, from the report made to the Cortes by the constitutional war minister, upon coming into office in 1820, we find that at that time Spain had then a colonial territory of 90,000 square leagues, garrisoned by 100,000 soldiers: at the end of the three first years of the constitutional *regime,* this territory had dwindled to 10,000 square leagues, occupied by 6000 men! At this time also, civil war raged all over Spain, the royalist insurgents traversed the Peninsula in all directions to the very gates of Madrid, and had taken by assault, and occupied some of the principal fortresses.

In his palace, the King's authority was insulted, and his life in danger; his guards were attacked by the constitutionalists, routed, and disbanded; his almoner, (the virtuous ecclesiastic Venuesa,) upon being acquitted by the legal tribunals of the false accusations brought against him, was openly butchered by the populace; and in the provinces, the Bishop of Vique, and upwards of a hundred priests, were put to death without the form of a trial, some of them (as at Corunna) being tied back to back and thrown into the sea, and others, as at St. Sebastian, Vigo and Tuy, shot upon the highway. At Valentia, the King's friend, Gen. Elio, the Captain-General of the province, was tried and condemned upon the evidence of forged letters, and unrelentingly put to death; whilst legislative enactments, of a nature so astonishing and monstrous as to be hardly credible, kept pace with the perversion of all law and justice, which attended the administration of the executive by the constitutional authorities. Thus, at one blow, the whole of the religious orders in Spain, comprising 100,000 individuals, were suppressed by a decree of the Cortes, and the members turned out upon the world with a donation varying from 100 to 400 ducats apiece. The law of entail, and the right of primogeniture, were set aside in a manner equally summary, until Spain by the operation of this system (misnamed constitutional) was reduced in the course of three years to the state so well described in the memorandum with which the Duke of Wellington supplied Lord Fitzroy Somerset, when the latter was despatched on a political mission to Madrid, by the British ministry, in the commencement of the year 1823. The following are the Duke's words:

"In Spain there is at present no trade or public revenue; the national property cannot be sold; the interest of the national debt cannot be paid, nor can the army, nor any of the public servants and establishments; and no money can be borrowed.

"I happen to know, that the principal monied people in Europe, will not lend their money to Spain till they shall see a system prevail in that country which shall afford some hope of the re-establishment of peace and good order."

That the compulsatory acceptance by the King of the system which was attended with such results, was the work of the Spanish people in 1820, may with great safety be denied. The whole of this proceeding resulted from the unwillingness of the Spanish army assembled at Cadiz for embarking for South America, to proceed to its destination. These mutinous troops found leaders in Quiroga and Riego, and subsequently in O'Donnell, Conde d'Abisbal. This

revolt was, in fact, not calculated to excite much surprise in the minds of persons acquainted with the composition of the Spanish army, and aware of the degree to which the sentiments, termed liberal, had been becoming fashionable amongst the Spanish officers, during the two reigns which preceded that of Ferdinand the Seventh, and of the proofs which had already been afforded of this being the case during the progress of the war of Independence.

In Naples, Piedmont and Portugal, similar displays of constitutionalism followed; and the ease with which these forces were put down in the two first-named countries, probably afforded encouragement to France and her allies to attempt the restoration of order and tranquillity in the Peninsula. The decision of France, however, upon this point, must be looked upon as in a great measure the result of absolute necessity; for, independent of the risk which there obviously was of her subjects becoming infected with the constitutional mania, her territory had been repeatedly violated towards the close of 1822, and the commencement of 1823, by the predatory bands assembled under Mina, in Catalonia; whilst every factious renegado or crazy constitutionalist, who took refuge within the Spanish frontiers for the purpose of hatching plots against her tranquillity, was encouraged and protected. Such was the state of affairs when the allied monarchs, assembled in congress at Verona, determined to interfere. Were they more to blame in endeavouring to overthrow the constitution of the Cortes in 1823, than Ferdinand the Seventh in refusing to accept it in 1813?

With respect to the question, as to the degree of merit which ought to be assigned to the Duke d'Angoulême, for bringing to a successful termination the enterprise with which he was entrusted, it seems easy to place it within a very narrow compass: either the Spanish army opposed to him was in favour of the constitution, and did its best to support it, or it did not. In the first case, the Duke d'Angoulême, in completely conquering such an army within its own country, would certainly appear entitled to the praise awarded on such occasions to able and successful generalship, and the French troops under his command to the character of brave and devoted soldiers;—if it be, on the contrary, the case that the Spanish army betrayed the cause which it had sworn to defend, its infamy is of the blackest dye, and the skill and prowess of the French generalissimo may, perhaps, be supposed to stand upon a more uncertain basis; but it is presumed, that the mode at which to arrive at an accurate appreciation of this question, must depend upon the perusal of a detail of the actual events of the war, divested as much as possible of party prejudice and misrepresentation: with which conviction the writer of the present sketches feels inclined to detain the reader no farther in a discussion with respect to the merits of the case, than by offering at this point of the narrative the opinion of Mr. Canning with respect to the difficulties which the Duke d'Angoulême would have to overcome, in the event of the French Government determining upon the invasion of Spain in the year 1823. In a despatch to the Duke of Wellington, who was at that time entrusted with the management of the negotiations carried on between Great Britain and the allied monarchs relative to the affairs of Spain, the eminent and lamented Foreign Secretary expresses himself as follows:—

"If there be a determined project on the part of the Allies to interfere by force, or menace, in the present struggle in Spain, so convinced are (is?) His Majesty's Government of the uselessness and danger of any such interference, as well as its *impracticability* in execution, that when the necessity arises, (or rather I would say when the opportunity offers,) I am to instruct your Grace at once frankly and peremptorily to declare, that to any such interference (come what may) His Majesty will not be a party."

The obstinacy with which the government of the Cortes continued to reject every attempt at conciliation on the part of the allies, even after it was known that the Duke d'Angoulême had left Paris for the purpose of assuming the command of the army of the Pyrenees, wore the appearance of absolute infatuation; and at the same time no efficient exertions were made by the Spanish authorities to repel by force the threatened hostilities.

On the 11th of January an address from the Cortes to the King of Spain was presented to His Majesty, by the President Riego, expressive of the determination of the country to resist to the last the interference of foreigners, in any shape whatever; and at the same time their passports were sent by the Secretary for Foreign Affairs (Colonel San Miguel) to the allied Ambassadors, with notes couched in violent and contemptuous terms.

Several exiled Buonapartists, amongst whom were Gen. L'Allemand, Colonel Fabvier, and some others, arrived in London, from whence they again took their departure in a vessel loaded with warlike stores, tricoloured cockades and flags, and other revolutionary emblems; and at Paris Gen. Piot, and several other persons, were arrested just as they were stepping into a diligence destined for the south of France, plentifully supplied with materials of a similar description.

When all the circumstances of the case are considered, and when we recollect the mixture of supineness and insolence displayed at this juncture by the government of the Cortes, it seems scarcely possible to avoid coming to the conclusion, that some anti-monarchical conspiracy was counted upon, of which the Spanish ministry were cognizant, which was expected at this time to hurl from the throne of France the elder branch of the Bourbons,—or at least that it was expected, that the popular clamour in England in favour of the Spanish constitutional system, would either force the British ministry to embark as a belligerent party in the cause of Spain, or resign their places to men who would not hesitate thus to sacrifice the true interests of England at the shrine of mob violence and folly.

The movements of the French troops on the northern side of the Pyrenees induced the Spanish Government to strengthen the garrison of Vittoria with an addition of some battalions of national guards snd volunteers, and the garrisons of Pampeluna and St. Sebastian were also reinforced by part of the division of Torrijos. Mina was named to the chief command in Catalonia, and after some hesitation, Abisbal was appointed to the military command at Madrid, with the inappropriate title of Political Chief.

Colonel Fabvier, and some of the other refugees who had left London, had in the mean time arrived at Vittoria, where they occupied themselves in organising a legion composed of French, Neapolitan, and Piedmontese liberals. A silly display was made by

these individuals on the 19th of March, when a party of them, accompanied by Mina and Llaberra, appeared in front of the French lines, bearing an enormous tricoloured flag and an imperial eagle, with which they passed along the line, but were only received with derision by the French troops. Mina alone seemed disposed to cross the frontiers, but upon the officer at the French outpost having warned him to retire, he obeyed, and the party were not again heard of. Upon this occasion the Quotidienne, French newspaper, justly observed,—

"Colonel Fabvier may have convinced himself, that the eagle in the hands of such a man as Buonaparte may have been a very talisman, but in the hands of a Fabvier, the eagle is only an unavailing piece of brass."

On the 15th March 1823, his Royal Highness the Duke d'Angoulême, accompanied by the Duke de Guiche, the Messieurs de Cantelon, and the two de Polignacs, left Paris, in order to assume the command of the French army assembled on the northern side of the Pyrenees, and which was generally known to be destined for the invasion of Spain.

One of the last persons who waited upon the Prince to embrace him and wish him success in his enterprise, was the Duke of Orleans, now Louis Phillipe the First; and as he passed along, he was hailed by the loud acclamations of that fickle populace, at whose hands his family had already endured so much misery.

As he continued his progress through the provinces, the Prince Generalissimo was received with every demonstration of the most enthusiastic loyalty; and adulation was unsparingly offered by all ranks and conditions to the descendant of the great Henry and of Louis the Fourteenth. At Perpignan, he inspected the *corps d'armée* of the eastern Pyrenees, destined to act under the command of Marshal Moncey, the Duke of Cornegliano, in the contemplated campaign; and on the 29th of the month, he arrived at Bayonne, and assumed the chief command of the army of the Pyrenees. The streets had been carefully covered with sand on occasion of the entrance of the Prince into the town, and in the evening a splendid and spontaneous illumination took place in honour of his arrival.

Next day, the following proclamation was issued by his Royal Highness to the army.

"Soldiers! I arrive among you. I have been satisfied with the good dispositions which animate you, and with your constancy in supporting the fatigues of a long march during the inclemency of the season. It will be by the splendour of every military virtue, that you will soon manifest your devotion to your King and to your Country. Fidelity, honour, discipline,—these will always be the device of the white flag under which we are going to fight.

"I shall watch over all your interests.

"Louis Antoine.

"Head-quarters, Bayonne, March 30th, 1823.

"By order of his Royal Highness the Commander-in-chief of the Army,

(Countersigned) "The Major-General, Count Guilleminot."

Strong reinforcements, amongst which were several battalions of the Swiss and Royal Guards, continued to press on to the frontiers, to join the army of the Pyrenees. Before the departure of the latter from Paris, they were inspected in the court of the Tuileries

by Monsieur, afterwards Charles the Tenth, when that Prince addressed them as follows:

"Gentlemen,—To speak to the Royal Guard of courage, fidelity, and devotion, would be to address them in useless language.

"I congratulate from the bottom of my heart a son, who is dearer to me than life, upon the honour of commanding you. The different corps of the guard and of the French army, are equally fit to be presented to our enemies to conquer them, and to the friends of order and fidelity to encourage them by their noble example.

"Heaven will vouchsafe to protect your efforts, and my son after having led you to glory, will have the satisfaction of soon bringing you back to the foot of the paternal throne of the King."

On his arrival at Bayonne the Generalissimo found the different corps of the army commanded as follows:—

First corps, Marshal the Duke of Reggio (Oudinot); second corps, Gen. Count Molitor; third corps, Gen. Prince Hohenlohe; fourth corps, (Eastern Pyrenees,) Marshal the Duke of Cornegliano (Moncey); Major-General of the army, Count Guilleminot.

Great clamour was made in the liberal Journals at the time, that the names of Buonaparte's generals, who had signalised themselves in Spain, were not to be found in the list of the commanders either of the *corps d'armée* or of the divisions of the army of the Duke d'Angoulême; and it was affected to be augured from this, that the army could not be successful. Perhaps the most rational answer to this objection, might have consisted in the question, as to who, or which of Buonaparte's generals had been successful in Spain! But the hundred days had intervened: this the liberals chose to forget, and in truth, the whole of Buonaparte's marshals, with the exception of Macdonald, Marmont, and Victor, (the latter at the time holding the portfolio of War Minister at Paris,) who had not given proofs of absolute treason to the legitimate dynasty, were employed in the army of the Duke d'Angoulême. It is also true, that some emigrant officers who had served with distinction under foreign sovereigns, during the period of the usurpation, were included amongst the commanders of the army of the Pyrenees—and that names privileged by history to bear a part in the military annals of France were also placed upon the list.

On the same day that his Royal Highness arrived at Bayonne, the able and faithful Minister-at-War, the Duke de Belluno, also reached the head-quarters. It was natural that he should wish to see the army which his exertions had placed on so perfect a footing for taking the field, before it commenced the important operations for which it was destined; and it was also surmised that the journey of the Duke bore some reference to a conspiracy which was rumoured to have been detected in the army of the Pyrenees, but this circumstance continued till the end of the war involved in mystery.

On the 2nd of April, the Duke d'Angoulême addressed from his head-quarters at Bayonne, a proclamation to the Spanish nation, in which he stated at length, that the King of France, by recalling his ambassador from Madrid, had hoped that the Spanish Government, warned of its dangers, would return to more moderate sentiments, and would not be deaf to the councils of benevolence and reason,—but that still there was no appearance of the establishment in Spain

of a state of things compatible with the safety of neighbouring states. The proclamation went on to state, that the revolutionary faction in Spain, which held the King captive,—which called for dethronement, and which menaced his life, and that of his family, had carried its guilty efforts beyond the frontiers. It had tried all means to corrupt the army of his most Christian Majesty, and to excite troubles in France, in the same manner as it had succeeded by the contagion of its example and its doctrines, in producing the revolutions of Naples and Piedmont, and that deceived in its expectations, it had invited traitors condemned by the tribunals of France, to consummate under the protection of triumphant rebellion, the plots which they had formed against their country. The time, it was said, had arrived for putting a stop to the anarchy which tore Spain in pieces, took from it the power of settling its colonial disputes, separated it from Europe, and broke all its relations with the august sovereigns whom the same intentions and the same views united with his most Christian Majesty. France, it was said in this proclamation, was not at war with Spain, nor could his Royal Highness, sprung from the same blood as her kings, have any wish but for the independence, the happiness, and glory of the Peninsula, —to unite himself to Spaniards, the friends of order and of the laws, to assist them in setting free their captive King, to raise again the altar and the throne, to rescue priests from exile, men of property from spoliation, and the whole people from the domination of an ambitious few, who, while they proclaimed liberty, prepared only the slavery and ruin of Spain, he was going to cross the Pyrenees at the head of a hundred thousand Frenchmen.

His Royal Highness went on to assure the Spaniards, that every thing would be done for them, and with them; that the French wished not to be any thing but their auxiliaries; that the standards of Spain alone should float over their cities; that the provinces traversed by the French army should be administered in the name of Ferdinand the Seventh by the Spanish authorities; that the severest discipline should be observed; that every thing necessary for the service of the army should be paid for with scrupulous punctuality; and that as soon as the deliverance of Spain had been effected, the French should return to France, happy to have preserved a generous people from the miseries produced by revolution, which experience had taught those of France but too well to appreciate.

This proclamation was countersigned by Monsieur de Martignac, who accompanied the Generalissimo as Councillor of State and Civil Commissioner of his most Christian Majesty.

On the 3rd of April the following order of the day was issued:—

"Soldiers! The confidence of the King has placed me at your head, in order to fulfil the noblest of missions. It is not the spirit of conquest which has made us take arms; a more generous motive animates us. We are going to replace a King on his throne, and to re-establish in a neighbouring country, which is a prey to anarchy, the order necessary to the happiness and prosperity of the two kingdoms.

"Soldiers! you will respect, and cause to be respected, religion, laws, and property; and you will render easy the accomplishment of the duty which has been imposed upon me of maintaining the most rigid discipline.

(Signed) "Louis Antoine.

(Countersigned) "Count Guilleminot."

RECOLLECTIONS OF A SEA LIFE.*

BY A MIDSHIPMAN OF THE LAST CENTURY.

WHILE the army under the Duke of York was retrograding, the fleet, under the command of Sir Andrew Mitchell, was prevented by contrary winds from entering upon the intricate navigation of the Zuyder Zee for some days after landing the army. On the approach of the expedition, the Dutch fleet had retired to the uppermost navigable part of this sea, and moored themselves in a line-of-battle along the edge of a sand-bank. They consisted of eight sail of two-deckers and some frigates. After two or three days of anxious expectation, the wind at last came to the north-west, which, with the assistance of a flood-tide, enabled us to round the Helder Point close under its numerous guns; which, being now in the hands of our friends, were no longer formidable to us.

The British fleet consisted of nine sail-of-the-line. But it was the policy of England at this time to nurse the growing power of Russia, who was then (and was always expected to be) her faithful ally. Consistently with these views, a Russian fleet had been for some time cruising off the Texel in company with ours, and exercising with them in all their evolutions. To prevent the accidents which might have happened from their awkwardness, they were not admitted into the British line; but formed one by themselves to windward, where they followed our motions. Two exceptions were made: the Ratvasen, commanded by a son of the first Scoto-Russian Admiral Greig, and the Mistizloff. These two ships had become so expert, that they were admitted into the British line, and formed a part of it. They were, therefore, added to the nine ships which were destined to sail up the Zuyder Zee. By the way, these northern allies of ours sometimes amused us with odd feats illustrative of their power of stomach. For instance, when their ships were being repaired at our dock-yards, the caulkers could never keep any *slush* in their troughs. This said *slush* was a compound of the dregs of train oil, cleaning of lamps, and such like palatable stuff. The caulkers carry it to dip their caulking chisels in, to prevent the old pitch from sticking to the iron, while they drive the oakum into the seams with them. Now, the contents of these slush-troughs were too tempting a *morçeau* for the Russians. Accordingly, they were always emptied, if not watched with due care by the caulkers. The taste of the officers was, sometimes, more refined. A handsome dinner was got up for a party of them on board the B——. one, who sat near the head of the table, was asked if he would take some fish; but having settled that point with himself upon observing a butter-boat filled with oyster-sauce, and large enough to have served a small family as a soup tureen, he said he should like that. It was accordingly handed to him, and he forthwith gobbled up the contents, to the great dismay of all the fish-eaters.

The fleet of nine sail of British and two sail of Russian two-deckers having rounded the Helder Point, our course now made the wind fair for us. It increased to a strong gale. But in this inland sea the

* Continued from page 352, Part I. for 1832.

water was smooth, so we dashed merrily along, although there were not many inches between our keel and the bottom. The British ship America, and one of the Russian ships, getting a little out of the deepest part of the channel, stuck fast upon the ground. This reduced the English ships to the same numerical force as the Dutch fleet, with one Russian ship in addition. Soon after this, the masts of the enemy became visible, with their large Dutch revolutionary ensigns flying. These, like the French, were tri-coloured, and bore a cap of liberty in the upper corner. But the blue, white, and red, were ranged horizontally instead of vertically.

Agreeably to the quixotic zeal with which Britain exerted herself to save her friends from the oppression of the French, our declared object in this expedition was to restore to the good people of Holland their legitimate Prince. But I have mentioned, that our army, at least, had found no great disposition in the good people to receive him. However, in following up this intention, the Prince of Orange's flag was hoisted in our ships alongside of the English ensigns; one side of which, being thus darkened, it seemed encumbered with its accompaniment, and to want the daring freedom with which it was wont to wave alone.

About noon we had reached within four miles of the Dutch line, and would have been alongside of them in about half an hour. It blew fresh, and it was therefore deemed proper to have a second reef in the topsails, that they might be handy for setting, in case the cables should be shot away after we had anchored alongside of our *friends;* so at this time the fleet took in the second reef of their topsails by signal, and furled the top-gallant sails. This was soon done, and we again resumed a steady course. Already the men began to trim and blow their matches, to take off their jackets, one to tie a handkerchief round his head, another to tie one round his waist; and all began to tuck up their sleeves, and to arrange and rearrange the tackle of their guns; while a chosen portion stood by the stoppers, and attended to the cable, which was led out of the stern in order to anchor in the manner of St. Paul (by the stern). The brief space which now appeared to lie between some of us and eternity seemed too long, and all appeared eager to span it over. At this time a boat was seen to be rowing towards us from the Dutch Admiral's ship. She, as well as the boat, displayed a white flag. Almost simultaneously with the display of this flag, the signal "Prepare to anchor," flew from our Admiral's mast-head. In two minutes the preparative was hauled down. The fleet rounded to, shortened sail, and anchored together, retaining their relative positions to each other. These movements acted on the men like the touch of a conjuror's wand. Before—all were full of life and alacrity. After the anchor was let go—the men heard the orders that were given, and obeyed, but without the buoyant spring and the vigorous action which a few minutes before had been so conspicuous. There was one old rough-visaged sailor at my guns who had neither seemed so much excited by our approach to the enemy, nor so much cast down by our halt as the rest. When the ship was anchored, and we had returned to our guns and were standing there idly, waiting for permission to leave them, this old son of Neptune broke out into a

kind of soliloquy, the tone and manner of which showed that he fully partook of the general disappointment.

"I knowed that the ——s would not fight."

"Knowed it?" said another, who understood him literally, "How did you know it?"

"How!—why, because they had enough of it two years ago. And, besides, I didn't like that 'ere b——y Orange flag hung up alongside of ours. I knowed that no good would come on it!"

Our sailor in these opinions had exactly hit upon the causes of the disappointment. The Dutch sailors had, by this time, discovered that the tri-coloured flag, with the cap of liberty in the corner, brought them no more liberty than an Orange flag. And, besides, as our sailor observed, they had had "enough of it two years before." So that they would not fight against the Orange flag. In this dilemma, the Dutch Admiral displayed his flag of truce, and despatched a boat to beg twenty-four hours to consult with the authorities at Amsterdam as to what should be done in consequence of our carrying the Orange flag. The answer of Sir Andrew Mitchell we understood to be, that he might have one hour to consult the captains of his fleet; at the end of which, if he did not surrender to the British flag, or hoist the Orange one, we should be alongside of him. Before the hour elapsed, an answer came to say, that he surrendered to the English flag, but had no Orange flag to hoist.

An officer from each of the British ships was forthwith sent with a boat's crew to take charge of the one which had been appointed as her opponent in the enemy's line. Here an anomaly took place which I have never been able to unriddle. These officers took charge of the Dutch ships with the revolutionary colours flying, and they remained up until sunset; at which time they were hauled down, as were the British ensigns, in the usual manner. I never learned why the Dutch colours were allowed to be kept up so long. Perhaps it was conceded to their Admiral for his civility in surrendering with so little trouble, in order to be less offensive to the good people of Amsterdam, whose spires were in sight. Next morning, however, the Orange flag was hoisted by the British authority on board those ships.

The America was still hard and fast upon the ground; the boats of the fleet were despatched to her assistance; the B——'s launch was sent with a stream anchor; the anchor was dropped in the proper direction, and the end of the cable taken on board of her. By it she hove off and joined the fleet. I have great pleasure now in the recollection that I was employed in this boat; but it was a rainy and blustering morning. We had left our ship about six, and did not get back to her till one o'clock. I "felt all the vulture in my jaws," and I fear I had then more satisfaction in sitting down to a dinner, which was also my breakfast, than at having been an humble accessary in saving his Majesty's ship America from peril. It was a day or two after this, before the wind admitted of our returning to the Helder. When it did, we sailed down the Zuyder Zee in company with our prizes, thus easily won.

As the crews of the Dutch ships would not fight against the flag we carried, it would not have been fair to have made prisoners of war of

them. On our arrival at the Helder, therefore, they were landed, that they might fight against the French; but whether they did this, or went home to other occupations, or joined the French army, I never heard. These were only the common men; the officers landed on their parole; and the petty officers, not being sufficiently honourable to be trusted on parole, but too honourable to declare for the Prince of Orange, were taken over to England and shut up in prison. I am afraid that their consistency was never rewarded by the French Government, who were the real rulers of Holland at this time. We remained at the Helder for some little time, which was occupied in putting the Dutch ships into sea-worthy trim for their passage across the North Sea. The first retrograde movement of our army was the signal for taking these ships out of the way of becoming a bone of contention. According to what I have said, then, about the motions of the army, it must have been about the 6th of October that I happened to be in a boat employed to bring off some rope from the Dutch arsenal at the Helder, when an aide-de-camp, who had come from the army in great haste, was there enquiring for a boat to take him off to the Admiral. Many officers asked him questions about the situation of the army, as we had heard the firing of a general engagement. The aide-de-camp was, of course, not communicative; but his silence clearly showed that our army was no longer advancing, and the hurry to get off the Dutch fleet (into one of the ships of which I was now sent) showed that our surmises as to the import of the aide-de-camp's communication were correct. By this time a number of British men-of-war had arrived at the Helder, and each of those which had brought the Dutch ships down the Zuyder Zee was appointed to take charge of her protégée across the North Sea; so his Majesty's ship B—— came off with the Dutch ship Batavia. We called her then His Serene Highness's ship, and were all very loyal and wore Orange cockades. But as these vessels never returned to Holland, and as those among them that were thought available, were fitted out as men-of-war for our service; and, moreover, as I got fourteen pounds for my share in this expedition three years afterwards; I presume that our Government, upon second thoughts, determined that as the Prince of Orange had no country, he did not require a fleet of men-of-war.

However, off we came with His Serene Highness's ship Batavia. After passing the Helder Point, we kept along the shore for some distance towards Camperdown, in order to round the shoals which lie southward from the Texel Island. As we sailed along the coast, we could perceive symptoms of some of the comforts of a seat of war. We saw, over the low range of sandy hills, volumes of smoke arising from a town on fire. Peiton was, I think, the name which our pilot gave to this town.

In the zest which the "glorious news" of the Gazette Extraordinary gave to the old port over which it was discussed, these little items in the matter of warfare served but as landmarks. "How happy is Britain to escape being the seat of war!" is a sentiment which has been expressed; but, I believe, the happiness has never been duly appreciated. To have one's house plundered by his friends in one day, and burnt by his enemies on the next, for the crime of supplying their opponents, must be no joke. British armies alone

always paid for the supplies which they took, as our national debt must remind us; and yet, after all this, we are told by officers of the army, who must have had opportunities of knowing, that the French, who levied contributions without paying for them, and who had no reserve in their atrocities, if the demanded supplies were not forthcoming, but who bowed to, and danced, &c. with the wives and daughters of the citizens, were better received than the upright, but inaccessible Briton. There must have been a good deal of the spaniel in these our allies; for all people, amongst whom our armies went to meet the French, were assumed to be such.

We brought our prizes safely over to England, and I rejoined my ship. When I first joined this ship, I fancied myself to have become a man—I was now sure of it, for I had been appointed to take charge of a watch in conducting a Dutch line-of-battle ship across the North Sea. I was further confirmed in this good opinion of myself by being rated a master's mate in a vacancy which happened in the B—— at this time. Had I got this promotion under the good old gentleman on whose account I had joined her, I might have thought it a matter of favour; but I was more proud of it as it was. Before the ship was sent upon any other service, it was again necessary she should be docked. To explain this, I must mention, that in beating out from the Nore after her former refit, the Pilot managed to run her upon a sand-bank called the Ooze, where she lay till the next tide. Notwithstanding the name of this shoal implying softness, it was hard enough to knock off the false keel of our good ship, and to occasion her constantly to make water enough to find wholesome exercise for her crew, in the way that the cough of Sir Sampson Maclaughlan did for him, according to his wife's opinion in her answer to the benevolent condolence of Aunt Grizzy—"It does him good, child; it is the only exercise he gets."

Having above conducted the reader so near to a sea-fight, and then disappointed him, (which, by the way, was the Dutchman's fault, and not ours,) I think I must here give him an account of one which did take place some years afterwards with our *friends* the Russians, who had then become our foes; and of which I had an opportunity of knowing the details. In the summer of 1808, when Buonaparte, not contented to rule Spain through her corrupt government, insulted her people by an attempt to supersede the name of that government, and thus made his first false step, he had previously despatched a Spanish army of 10,000 men, under the Marquis de la Romana, to second his views in the North, or more truly to send them out of Spain. The presence of this army on the shores of the Baltic, and other threatening appearances to our allies the Swedes, whose fleet was thought very inferior to that of Russia, then at war with them, caused our Government to send a considerable fleet into the Baltic, under the command of Vice-Admiral Sir James Saumarez, now Lord de Saumarez, for their protection. While the main body of this fleet remained upon the coast of Sweden to guard it, and to obtain information of the disposal of the enemy's force, a detachment of it under Rear-Admiral, now Sir Richard Keats, was stationed in the *Belt* (that part of this inland sea which lies between the islands of Zealand and Funen). This officer succeeded in opening a communication with the

Marquis de la Romana, and ultimately embarked his whole army, who were thus relieved from their banishment, and returned to join their brethren in Spain. Two ships had also been detached under the orders of Rear-Admiral Sir Samuel Hood, to join the Swedish fleet, and co-operate with them. These two ships were the Centaur (his flag-ship) and the Implacable, commanded by Captain, now Sir Byam Martin.

Having proceeded to Carlscrona, the principal naval arsenal and harbour of Sweden, Sir Samuel Hood learned there that the Swedish fleet had put to sea; but there was no account of the Russians having yet done so. However, while the Centaur and Implacable were completing their water at this place, accounts came that the Russian fleet was at sea, and that the Swedish fleet had put into a port on the coast of Finland. A strong breeze blew directly into the harbour of Carlscrona, out of which no line-of-battle ship had ever beaten before, the entrance to it being long and very narrow; and the Swedes had taken it for granted that it was impossible. "*On ne peut pas.*" But imaginary impossibilities did not deter Sir Samuel Hood. The two ships did beat out. I am afraid to say how many tacks it required, but I think the number was thirty-nine.

The southern coast of Finland, which forms the northern shore of the gulf of that name, is much indented by bays and creeks; and near to the lower extremity of this coast, where it rounds off into the Gulf of Bothnia, the creeks are formed by numerous islands. Into one of these creeks the Swedish fleet had put, when they heard of the Russians being at sea; although it is not easy to understand what the Swedes had gone into the Gulf of Finland for, if it was not to meet the Russians. But this mode of warfare was very prevalent then among those nations, as it had been in former times with Britain also, when modes of attack were discussed at great length, and some advantage always expected to be gained, before a battle should commence; instead of going direct to their point in the straightforward bull-dog fashion of later years. A little before this time, I saw an amusing instance of the sort of warfare to which I have referred, between the Danish and the Swedish flotilla of gun-boats. His Majesty's ship A——, in which I then was, lay at Malmo, for the purpose of escorting the convoys of British merchant vessels, which passed into the Baltic through the channel between this corner of Sweden and Copenhagen, which is opposite to Malmo. The channel is called the Malmo passage. The part of this passage navigable for large ships is narrow, and the whole distance across, from Malmo to Copenhagen, is such, that each can be seen from the other, though both lie low. The Danes and Swedes have each their flotilla of gun-boats at those places respectively. It is quite clear, that two hostile ports so situated, could not both long continue to have such flotillas, were it not for the care with which they nurse them, and the indulgence of each to the other by retiring when it appears to be incumbent upon his opponent to attack.

His Majesty's ship A—— had escorted a large convoy through the Malmo passage into the Baltic, and was returning to her anchorage at Malmo. She was in the narrowest part of the channel, when it fell a dead calm. The Danish gun-boats sallied forth to attack her, and

forming themselves into two divisions, took positions upon each quarter from which they might have almost destroyed her with very little risk to themselves, if they had advanced about 500 yards nearer than they did. They would thus have chosen a distance at which their long thirty-two pounders would have banged through the ship with every shot; and the sharp and low points which they presented to be fired at could not easily have been hit by our guns at that distance; but they kept at the extreme range of their guns, and did but little damage. A light air of wind enabled the A—— to get out of her helpless situation in these narrows, and to gain her anchorage at Malmo.

By the time she arrived there, the Swedish flotilla were getting under way, and stood out very boldly to attack the Danes, who were now retiring towards Copenhagen. The Swedes followed them with great demonstrations of zeal, and cheered us as they passed. The chase of the Danes continued until they had nearly reached their own side of the channel. It now seemed proper etiquette that the tables should be turned, and that the chase should now proceed the other way. Accordingly, the Danes having put about, and stood out to meet their pursuers, we expected to see some hard fighting, but this was not intended; the Swedes put round also, and stood back to Malmo, with the Danes chasing them, till they got near the Swedish shore, when it became their turn again to be pursuers; and this glorious game of humbug was continued across and across the channel for the rest of the afternoon. The Danish *Government*, however, were more in earnest, and censured the commander of their flotilla for not going nearer to the British ship. We understood that he was superseded, and one of more determination put in his place. The effects of this change were made apparent upon his Majesty's ship A—— the next time that she was returning through the Malmo passage, when she was again caught in a calm. She was attacked in good style by this flotilla, lost all her topmasts, her lower-masts, rigging and hull were much cut up, and she had sixty men killed and wounded.

Formidable things in the smooth water of inland seas these gunboats are. But this is not the account of the battle which I promised. When his Majesty's ships Centaur and Implacable had succeeded in beating out of the harbour of Carlscrona, the wind was fair for them, and they were not long in reaching the port where the Swedish fleet lay blockaded by the Russians. The position the blockaders had taken up off the port admitted of those ships passing them. They did this, and sailing into the port, joined the Swedes. The Swedish and Russian fleets had nearly the same numerical force as to ships of-the-line. I forget the exact number, but I think it was twelve or thirteen of each. The Russians, however, had more frigates, and some of them were heavy ships with guns on their gangways. Besides this difference, two of the Russian ships, the Angel Gabriel, and another tremendous-looking three-decker, having guns on their gangways, showed four complete tiers of guns.

No sooner did Sir Samuel Hood get into the port where the Swedes were, than he began his attack upon their Admiral. Not upon his ship, but upon himself *in propria persona*, to urge his going out with the British ships to attack the Russians. A great many obstacles were to be encountered. Some of his ships were in want of this or

that necessary repair. All these were undertaken and completed by the assistance of the British ships. But to crown all, the water-casks were on shore, and he could not go to sea without water. The boats of the Centaur and Implacable had them on board for him that night. While these things were going on, the Russians did not like the look of two British ensigns flying amongst the Swedes. Still they expected it to be a *ruse de guerre*. But to assure themselves on this point, they made a pretence to send a frigate in with a flag of truce, whose Captain satisfied himself that the ships were really what they seemed to be. After he had joined his fleet, the Russians saw a corroboration of his account by the British and Swedish ships getting under way, and standing out on the morning of the 25th of August. It was now the Russians' turn to run. The western extremity of the coast of Revel, which forms the southern shore of the Gulf of Finland, terminates in an island. The island is set into an indentation of the land, and thus forms and protects a creek which we called Port Baltic, and the island we called Rodgerwick; but as I do not observe this island and port marked in our common atlases, I presume they are of no great note, though the island and coast are fortified to protect this harbour. From the anchorage where the Swedes had been blockaded, across the mouth of the gulf to this port, is about sixty or seventy miles. This distance, therefore, the Russians had to run before they could reach a place of safety. The wind was blowing down the gulf, (from the eastward) so that they could make a course for this port, but could not have fetched much above it. For this purpose they were nearly close-hauled on the larboard tack. When the two British ships and the Swedish fleet made sail in chase, they were a good distance to leeward as well as astern of the Russians. Before the night set in, a very sensible change had taken place in the relative positions of the British and Swedish ships. The Centaur and Implacable had left the Swedes nearly as far as they were now distant from the Russians, on whom they were gaining fast. This troubled the Swedish Admiral. A Lieutenant of the Centaur was on board of him to interpret signals. The Admiral was very desirous to know from him whether Sir Samuel Hood would engage at night. He took great pains to explain that he was very ready to fight in the day-time, but did not understand fighting at night. He was assured, however, that Sir Samuel Hood would bring the Russians to action whenever he could come up with them. The fears of the Swedish Admiral were so far groundless, that the British ships did not come up with them during the short night which followed; but when the sun rose, they appeared to him to be among the Russians. Still he wondered that no firing had commenced. They were in fact not near enough to do any good in that way as yet. The Centaur and Implacable both sailed well. In this general chase there was no restraint as to keeping stations between those two ships. There was, therefore, a fair trial of their sailing. The Implacable had the best of it. In the course of the chase she had gained about a mile and a half to windward of the Centaur, and by seven o'clock, she was in the wake of the Sewolad, the leewardmost and sternmost of the Russian line. She was a large eighty-gun ship. Before this time the Sewolad had tacked to get into the wake of her own fleet, and had stood on the starboard tack about half an hour for

this purpose. The Implacable followed by tacking after her, and when the Sewolad again tacked to follow the Russian fleet on the larboard tack, the Implacable had gained so much, that the Sewolad passed her to windward near enough to exchange broadsides; the Implacable having stood on until she was in the wake of the Sewolad, again tacked after her.

The Swedish fleet were by this time hull-down to leeward. The Implacable, now sufficiently far to windward, was able to keep her sails *clean full*, and soon shot up under the lee-quarter of the Sewolad, where a thundering exchange of broadsides commenced. The Russian Admiral could not stand this, but made a signal, which was answered by three large ships. They bore up to succour the Sewolad. When Sir Samuel Hood in the Centaur saw this, he forthwith made a signal of recall to the Implacable, who therefore left her friend the Sewolad, and bearing up, came down to the Centaur. The two ships formed in close order to wait the result and support each other. The Russian Admiral made another signal, which recalled his ships, and they all continued to stand on towards Port Baltic, while the British ships kept close astern to watch for an opportunity of attacking any stragglers.

The land on the Revel side of the gulf, at the end of which Port Baltic is situated, now hove in sight, and the Russian fleet looked up for their port; but the Sewolad, which had been the leewardmost before she was attacked by the Implacable, at which time she lost a hundred and thirty men, and had her sails and rigging much cut, never got her sails to stand well afterwards; so that, of course, she fell to leeward of the rest still more, and when they barely fetched in to Port Baltic, she was unable to weather the point of the island that formed it, and dropped her anchor close to the coast of this island. The British ships followed the Russian fleet until they had all stood in to this port, and then bore up and ran down upon the Sewolad. She appeared to be aground, but a nearer approach showed that she had boats towing her. She had weighed her anchor, and was endeavouring to make her way round the point against the wind, which was now very light. When Sir Samuel Hood perceived the boats towing, and thereby saw that she was afloat, he observed, that if there was water for her, there would be water for the Centaur, which now steered right for her, followed by the Implacable.

As the course of the British ships lay down the coast, and the head of the Sewolad was directed up, the Centaur approached her nearly end on. The wind, being light, made the approach slow, and it was quiet. There was no useless firing of guns to lull the light wind into a calm, but all that could be courted into the sails was made use of. The boats which had been sent to tow the Sewolad dispersed. The foremost carronade on the forecastle was the first gun that was fired. The signal for its discharge was the crackling noise made by the flying gib-boom of the Sewolad, as it broke its way through the fore-topsail of the Centaur. Her helm was now put hard a-starboard, and as she grazed her way across the hawse of the Sewolad, carried away her flying gib-boom and gib-boom in succession, until her bowsprit hung in the main rigging of the Centaur, whose triple-shotted broadside went off gun by gun as they came to bear upon the bows of the de-

voted Sewolad, until you might have driven a coach and six through them. Had this continued when the hulls of the two ships came in contact, the burning powder blazing up between them, would inevitably have set both on fire. Sir Samuel Hood, therefore, gave orders to board the Sewolad, whose bowsprit now lay over the poop of the Centaur. The Russians made a pretty good stand for a little time upon their forecastle, but were soon overpowered, and submitted, although not until four of the Centaur's men had been killed, and about twenty-eight, including the first lieutenant, wounded. During this encounter both ships had fallen aground.

Capt. Martin, perceiving that no good could be done by a third ship coming in contact with two vessels thus entangled with each other, and with the ground, anchored the Implacable in a most seamanlike manner a short cable's length to seaward from them; and running a stream cable to the Centaur, hove her off as soon as she had done her work. The boats of both ships were now employed to take the prisoners out of the *wreck* for the purpose of burning her. When they had commenced doing this, it was perceived that the Russian fleet which had anchored, were again moving, three of them being already under way and standing out. Sir Samuel Hood then despatched a boat with a flag of truce, to say that it was his object now to save the lives of the remaining crew of the Sewolad, and particularly of the wounded, but if the Russian fleet moved, they must instantly be sacrificed by her being set on fire. The three Russian ships again anchored. The removal of the wounded and of all the prisoners was completed, and the Sewolad being set on fire, made her final exit in great splendour.

MODERN TROOPS AND TACTICS—CAVALRY AND INFANTRY.

I HAVE perused an article in the United Service Journal for the month of March 1832, wherein a correspondent, who signs himself J. M. has entered into a farther discussion on the same subject of which he previously treated in the Number of the Journal for May 1831. If I understand that correspondent rightly, his assertions may be summed up briefly thus.—The tactics of our infantry are highly defective—the musket and bayonet is a "rickety, zig zag, unhandy instrument"—and squares of infantry when attacked by cavalry, will inevitably be broken and destroyed, provided the horsemen *know* and *do* their duty; the fire delivered from a square being described by him as "*a wretched volley of musketry.*" Thus much for the tactics, arms, and helplessness of infantry.

Our cavalry are censured for a want of that chivalrous spirit and daring that existed amongst them at the affairs of Villiers-en-couche, and at Cateau Cambresis; but they are assured that if in future they ride boldly and with determination at infantry in square, neither the bayonet of the foot soldier, nor the *weak, inoffensive fire* from his musket, will avail; and that the square must inevitably be annihilated.

I am at all times unwilling to enter into controversies merely for the sake of so doing; but really the creed of your correspondent is so much at variance with that of the majority of the oldest and most ex-

perienced officers, that I cannot refrain from offering a few remarks; and this I do in the spirit of good feeling, for which I hope J. M. will give me credit, however great may be the difference of our opinions on these matters. I beg to observe also, that my notions are not founded on *theory*, but on *practice;* and having participated in the whole of the Peninsular campaigns, as likewise the battles of Quatre Bras and Waterloo, I trust I shall not be considered presumptuous in giving an opinion. It is not my intention to enter into a detail of the mode of warfare pursued by the ancients, for I conceive it to be a matter of perfect indifference to us of the present day, what system of tactics the Grecians and Romans adopted, or the mode which they found most efficacious for breaking the heads of their opponents; my object being to offer a few remarks on modern warfare. I will candidly confess, before I proceed to touch on those matters, that although it is much the fashion, even to the present day (especially with those whose campaigns have never extended beyond the perusal of a few military volumes by the fireside), to draw comparisons between the soldiers of old and those of the present time, unfavourable to the latter, I cannot become a convert to that doctrine; neither do I credit those who assert that we have been constantly degenerating from the days of Cæsar to the present period.

Colonel Napier, alluding to the march made by the light brigade under Gen. Craufurd the day it reached Talavera, very justly observes, "Had the historian Gibbon lived in those days, he might have spared his sneers about the effeminacy of modern soldiers." This brigade of modern soldiers contrived to march upwards of sixty English miles in about twenty-six or twenty-seven hours; and it ought not to be forgotten that for some days before, the troops had been irregularly supplied with bread; that they performed this march in the hottest time of the year, and in the hottest part of Europe; that water to quench their thirst was with the utmost difficulty to be procured on those sunburnt plains; and that together with knapsack, great coat, fire arms, eighty rounds of ammunition, accoutrements, canteen, and havresack, &c. the soldier carried a heavy load; and finally, that the brigade reached Talavera in a compact, well-formed body, having left but very few stragglers on the road. I had the honour to belong to the light brigade; and as I accompanied it on that occasion, am ready to vouch for all the above particulars. If the charge of "*degeneration*" made by many against modern soldiers be correct, a Roman legion would, by the rule of three, have performed the same distance in *thirteen hours*, which occupied the light brigade *twenty-six*.

No thinking and unprejudiced person will allow himself to be so far deceived, as to credit that any body, either of Grecian or Roman soldiers, that ever drew the breath of life, could have made a similar march in a shorter space of time, in better order, or with so few stragglers from their ranks. How long the notion will continue to hold its ground, as to the vast superiority of the soldiers of Greece and Rome over those of modern days, it is hard to say; for the delusion, the humbug, (I cannot but so term it,) has been handed down from father to son, from generation to generation; and it will probably continue to be handed down to the end of the chapter.

It is customary to teach the schoolboy at an early age to look with

wonder and admiration at the extraordinary feats of the soldier of old, and, at the same moment, he is instructed to look down with contempt on the exploits of those of his own time. When, however, we arrive at that age which enables us to think for ourselves, it behoves us to view these subjects fairly and dispassionately, and not to allow our judgment to be blinded by the lessons instilled into our minds, too often, by pedantic pedagogues.

The author of "Recollections of the Peninsula," speaking of the defence of Thermopylæ (notwithstanding his veneration for the soldiers of that period) says, he is of opinion that an equal number of British grenadiers would have maintained the pass with the same degree of bravery and devotion; and in this I quite agree with the author.

I shall undoubtedly be considered heretical by those who blindly worship the exploits of the ancients, and at the same moment affect to hold excessively cheap those of modern soldiers, if I question whether the murderous discharges of round shot, shells, grape and musketry, and the desperate charges of cavalry to which the soldiers of our own time have been so repeatedly exposed, would not have been found infinitely less palatable, more trying to the nerves of the Grecian and Roman soldiers, and have made much wider gaps in their phalanxes, than the weapons with which they were wont to be assailed. I shall also, perhaps, be deemed exceedingly sceptical if I entertain further doubts, whether the heroes of old would have met the storm of modern warfare with more unflinching bravery than was evinced by those who fought at Borodino, Leipsic, Corunna, Talavera, Albuera, Waterloo, and in a thousand other fields. Finally, I am of opinion that the soldiers of olden time were neither more nor less than men; that they were brave men too; but I hope to be pardoned for presuming to believe that they excelled those of the present day in no one of those qualities most to be appreciated in men who follow the profession of arms.

I now take leave of Greeks and Romans, and I beg to offer an apology for this very long digression. As to our tactics, I never was a blind admirer of all the manœuvres introduced by the late Sir D. Dundas for the drill of our infantry, inasmuch as I know that some of them were utterly impracticable under the fire of an enemy; and the same objection may be found to some of the movements established for the infantry within the last ten years. In admitting this, however, I am of opinion that during a long interval of peace, it is well to make regiments so handy, that you may turn and twist them about in all shapes with ease; commanding officers of battalions nevertheless directing their CHIEF ATTENTION to the instruction of those under them in the *few*, the *very few* manœuvres which they will, in reality, ever be called on to perform in face of an enemy, and in *making them perfect in those few above all others.*

As there are always some tacticians to be found holding opinions diametrically opposite to the generality of others, and as I have ventured to assert that a regiment when in the field will be called on to put in practice but few of the movements established for their drill at home, I will enumerate those few, and this I do from ocular demonstration. Marching either in close column, half, whole, or at quarter distance; the formation either into line or square from column, as cir-

cumstances may require; advancing or retiring in square; advancing or retiring in line, covered by skirmishers; taking ground to the right or left by a march in column, and wheeling a solid column to the right or left. To those who served throughout the Peninsular war and at Waterloo, I appeal; and would ask them, if they ever witnessed, during the whole of that period, any other manœuvres performed by our own army or by that of the French.

The few above enumerated I do, with all due deference to your correspondent, conceive to be as simple and as near perfection as possible. They sufficed at least to gain never-fading laurels for the British army, and to bring it victoriously out of every sanguinary battle *without exception*, in which it was opposed to the very best and most experienced of all the continental troops, from 1801 in Egypt, to the termination of the war at Waterloo in 1815. The system therefore is quite perfect enough to satisfy me, and I am for "*letting well alone;*" although I am not one of those so bigoted to old systems, as to believe that improvements may not be effected from time to time.

But "J. M." in objecting to the tactics of our infantry, appears to think, that to the defectiveness of "the system," as he styles it, is to be attributed our not having taken more prisoners at the battle of Vittoria, and on other occasions during the war. He cannot, however, be ignorant of the fact, that an army of Frenchmen having the start of their enemies, and being resolved to beat a rapid retreat, abandoning their artillery, baggage, and the whole *materiel* of their army, had most indisputably the *power* of getting away from their pursuers, unless it can be satisfactorily proved that Frenchmen are less nimble of foot than Englishmen. I confess myself, therefore, unable to guess *what system of tactics* would have enabled the Duke of Wellington's army to make more prisoners on that occasion; unless, indeed, a considerable portion of our troops could, by some stroke of magic, have managed to gain the high road to Pampluna, and have thus placed our beaten foe between two fires. That victory was considered of no little importance, either by friends or foes, for it enabled the Duke of Wellington forthwith to overlook France from the Pyrenean passes, to menace, and finally to *invade* that "sacred territory." True it is, and universally known moreover, that Marshal Soult, not many weeks after the disasters of the French at Vittoria, contrived to make a *dash* with overwhelming numbers at a handful of our troops in the Pyrenean passes, and to win his way nearly to Pampluna; and it is equally certain, that *one half of our army* beat him to his heart's content; and after a succession of contests amongst these mountains, drove his army back into France, after it had sustained a loss of fifteen thousand men. *Here again* the *tactics* and the *system* of our army proved successful.

The writer in question seems to look down with something nearly approaching to sovereign contempt on the unfortunate infantry soldier of the present day, inasmuch as he considers his musket and bayonet a poor, inefficient weapon, especially against cavalry; and has, moreover, taken the trouble to calculate how many Frenchmen fell at Waterloo by the fire of our infantry; by which calculation "J. M." says, "all the exertion of two men during an entire day only brought down one enemy!!!" "J. M." will perhaps excuse my observing, that his

estimate of the number of French who fell at Waterloo is very much lower indeed than any I ever saw or heard of before. It has been rated at *nearly double his statement.* But this is a point which I do not pretend to determine. Now as "J. M." condemns without hesitation the musket and bayonet, is he prepared to suggest some better and more formidable weapon for our infantry?

He states, that "*two thousand Highlanders* at Prestonpans, armed with broad swords and targets, overthrew at the first onset nearly three thousand British infantry;" and he adds, that "although the British infantry in 1745 could neither move nor form with the rapidity of modern infantry, and although they used wooden ramrods, which were liable to break, still the defeat above mentioned did not result from any tardiness of movement on the part of the King's troops, or from their wooden ramrods; for the King's troops were drawn up and formed when assailed by the Highlanders, and a charge could leave no time for more than one or two volleys."

Let us suppose a similar experiment to have been tried in our own day. Two thousand of Buonaparte's imperial guard, (or two thousand Highlanders, I care not which,) armed with broad swords, attack a brigade of British infantry of equal numbers, formed in line, either in a close or open country, and armed with muskets, bayonets, and ball-cartridge. Admitting the British infantry to have only time to deliver *two volleys of musketry* (the latter of the two being reserved until the attacking party arrived within ten yards of the line), and then to charge with the boyonet, can "J. M." really persuade himself that the assailants would have the most remote chance of success? I hold the musket and bayonet *alone, exclusive* of the powder and ounce of lead, to be a more formidable weapon than a sword; and, therefore, as two volleys, or even *one poured in steadily* at a few yards distance, would inevitably have the effect of shattering the ranks of the assailants most cruelly, a charge with the bayonet would speedily put the finishing stroke to the business.

The British infantry were doubtlessly as brave in 1745 as those of the present day, but even "J. M." admits that they could neither *move* nor *form* with the rapidity of modern infantry; and I need not remind him that the capability of moving quickly and correctly are no inconsiderable attainments. I beg leave, moreover, to doubt whether the *fire* of the infantry in 1745 was so *quick* and *accurate* as is now the case. Numbers of French officers, who were opposed during the last war to all the continental troops as well as to our own, have universally described the *fire* of the British infantry as *much quicker, and more accurately directed,* than that of any other army in Europe. I state this, because "J. M." in his paper in the U. S. Journal of May 1831, speaking of the British infantry, terms them "individually very bad shots." The opinions, however, delivered on that point by our enemies, who have so often felt the effect of our fire, I should feel disposed to pay some little deference to, even had I not been enabled to form some judgment from my own personal observations and experience.

I admit that "J. M." has not suggested the introduction of Highland broad swords in the place of muskets and bayonets for our infantry; but as he appears to despise the latter weapon so thoroughly, I have

some little curiosity to know what he would substitute for it. I am one of those old-fashioned persons who entertain a much higher opinion of the musket and bayonet; and it is almost needless to appeal to those who have witnessed the movement of large armies during a succession of campaigns, in order to ascertain whether infantry is not the *only perfect arm*—the only arm which can *move, fight,* and *march* independently and alone, unsupported by cavalry and artillery, if required to do so, either in an open or in an intersected country. Can a body of cavalry, unaccompanied by the other arms, make its way through a hostile country, through a country diversified with hill and dale, plains, woods, rocks, and defiles? No;—a handful of infantry will stop them in a wood, in a defile, or against enclosures. The whole military world knows that ten, twenty, or a hundred pieces of artillery dare not proceed through a hostile country unless strongly escorted by either or both of the other arms. Infantry, on the other hand, can make its way across any country alone. In a country chequered with hill and dale, mountain and plain, rock and river, this arm of the service can never be put out of its place, provided that it be made up of such troops as are really deserving of the name of infantry. I allude not to *raw, half-formed* levies, but to such troops as were constantly in the habit of coming in contact with each other in the Peninsula, from 1808 to 1814.

Instances in abundance may be adduced in support of my opinion as to the capability of infantry in square to resist cavalry. "J. M." indeed admits, that the battles of Marengo, Auerstadt, Aspern, and Waterloo, were gained by the firmness of the infantry in withstanding the attacks of cavalry. Such battles are proofs so incontrovertible of the superiority of infantry in square over cavalry, in any description of country, as to require no small degree of logic to do away with that opinion in the minds of all unbiassed persons. Will it be denied that the struggle between the French cavalry and the squares of our infantry at Waterloo, which lasted without intermission for nine hours, throughout the whole of which not one single square was broken, although assailed hour after hour by the French cuirassiers (with a bravery and determination never surpassed), was so conclusive as to set the question at rest for ever as to the superiority of the musket and bayonet of the foot soldier?

Let it be borne in mind, that it was not merely a contest between cavalry and infantry on ground highly favourable for the operations of the *former,* but that a numerous and powerful artillery played incessantly on the British squares *preparatory* to each attack of the French cavalry. In spite, nevertheless, of the dreadful gaps made in our masses by the French batteries, the British infantry did manage to hold its ground, to beat the French cavalry in every attack they made, and moreover without having a single square penetrated. But "J. M." accuses the French cavalry of not having charged in right good earnest up to the British squares, but, on the contrary, of opening right and left on receiving our fire, and then retiring. So at least I understand "J. M.;" and, if I have misconstrued his statement, I can assure him it is quite unintentional, and I crave his pardon.

I was one of the many who on that memorable day witnessed with

admiration the enthusiastic bravery displayed by those brave cuirassiers, nor have I ever heard two opinions on the subject; *and,* I can assure "J. M." that he will find but few, if any, of those who fought at Quatre Bras and Waterloo, whose opinions as to the conduct of the French cavalry are not diametrically opposite to his own. It may be questioned whether Europe, or the world at large, ever produced a body of better cavalry than the cuirassiers in question; still they failed in every attempt on our infantry squares, although aided by a most overwhelming artillery, and stimulated by the presence of their Emperor.

It may be as well in this place to remind "J. M." that the splendid British brigade of infantry which he describes as being broken and upset by the French cavalry at *Albuera,* were not formed in *squares,* but on the contrary in line, or rather in the *act* of deployment; and that they were already shattered by a murderous fire of artillery and musketry. The French lancers had therefore nothing to boast of on that occasion; nor does that instance tend to shake my position in the least as to the comparative powers of cavalry and infantry on a plain. If "J. M.'s" calculation be correct, wherein he states that "it required the exertion of *two men* during a whole day to bring down *one enemy* at Waterloo," I trust he will not take it amiss if I beg him also to make a calculation as to the number of the enemy who fell on the following occasions, and the *time* that was required to kill or wound them.

In the action near *Sabugal,* on the 3rd of April 1811, fought principally by Colonel Sidney Beckwith's brigade of the light division, Colonel Napier says—"In this bloody encounter, which lasted *scarcely an hour,* the French lost three hundred killed, and twelve hundred wounded," &c. Perhaps "J. M." is not aware that by far the majority of the fifteen hundred Frenchmen who were disabled or killed on this occasion, fell by the fire of the 43rd regiment, and half a battalion of the 95th riflemen; or, in other words, about eleven or twelve hundred British infantry put *hors du combat, in one hour,* considerably more than their own number, without the aid of cavalry or artillery, and merely with that musket and bayonet which he so despises. How will this tally with his calculation as to the number of rounds of musketry fired to no purpose in battles?

Baron Bock's brigade of German cavalry did succeed in breaking a square of French infantry, which had been shamefully abandoned by its cavalry, the morning after the battle of Salamanca; and, as I belonged to the column of infantry which marched in support of our cavalry, and as we arrived at the scene of action a few minutes after it had terminated, I had an opportunity of seeing that although the square did give way (it is the only instance *I* have ever witnessed) nearly one hundred of the brave German cavalry were killed or wounded, and that too in a few minutes; a proof sufficient to establish the fact that the "miserable fire of musketry" of an infantry square occasionally does mischief. The whole of the French infantry on this occasion was rated at seventeen hundred men; if therefore one face of the square was charged by the German cavalry, *that one face,* amounting to *four hundred and twenty-five* men, brought to the ground

in *a minute or two*, a number of its enemy, equalling nearly *one fourth* part of the face of the square; viz. ninety-five men, as admitted by "J. M." if I mistake not.

Colonel Talbot, at the head of the 14th Light Dragoons, in 1810, charged two companies of French infantry in square on an open plain, without being able to make the least impression on it. The gallant 14th DID NOT OPEN RIGHT AND LEFT as "J. M." accuses the French cuirassiers of having done at Waterloo, but those who were not knocked down by the fire, *reached the square.* Colonel Talbot, whose body I saw a few minutes after he fell, bore marks of *bayonet wounds*, as did likewise the dead bodies of many of his brave followers; a proof that they nobly did their duty, although unable to break the diminutive square of one hundred and eighty men. Here then we have another example (if such be required) to show that six or seven hundred of as good and gallant horsemen as the British army ever boasted, proved *not* a *match* for *two* companies of *infantry* on a plain. Again—near *El Bodon* in 1811—(this I conclude is the occasion to which "J. M." alludes when speaking of "volleys of musketry being fired at *Fuente Guinaldo*") Gen. Colville's brigade resisted successfully, and with the utmost bravery and steadiness, a numerous French cavalry aided by artillery, and this too on a plain. *Three sides of the infantry square were charged at the same instant* by the French dragoons, but all their efforts failed, and this gallant band effected their retreat in presence of the enemy without disorder. I rode over the ground some days after the termination of that affair, and I can assure "J. M." that the fire from the British square was anything but *harmless*, if I might be allowed to form an opinion from the numbers of dead bodies on the field.

The French army under Napoleon in Egypt never hesitated to place its infantry in masses, and to advance across the plains in face of swarms of Turkish and Mameluke cavalry; and I have never *heard* or *read of* one instance of the French squares being thrown into disorder by those horsemen, *brave* as they are acknowledged to have been. So many instances can be adduced to the contrary, that I cannot by any means agree with "J. M." in thinking the British cavalry wanting in that chivalrous spirit which they evinced at Cateau Cambresis, and at other places some thirty-five or forty years since. On the contrary, I believe it requires experience alone to make it equal, if not superior to any cavalry on earth; but the probabilities are much against its having the same experience as the infantry, unless indeed we should again be engaged in a protracted struggle similar to that in the Peninsula.

That I entertain opinions very different from "J. M." as to the arms and tactics of infantry, and their capability of resisting cavalry, I have plainly stated, and for which I conclude he will consider no apology necessary; my object being to prove that infantry, so far from being an *inferior* arm, is by far the most perfect and formidable of any.

AN OLD SOLDIER.

London, March 16th, 1832.

COLONEL MACERONE'S DEFENSIVE INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE PEOPLE.

From the skilful and scientific commentary upon the great and varied events of the Peninsular and Continental campaigns, to the more humble but extremely interesting details of personal adventure, there is no subject connected with the art and history of war, that has not been laid before the public within the last few years, in the style and form most useful to the military, and most entertaining to the ordinary reader. Persons who have a turn and inclination for reading of this kind, are consequently as well acquainted with the course of the masterly movements of the Duke of Wellington and Napoleon, as with their results, and feel as conversant with the habits, privations, and amusements of the subaltern, and even of the private soldier on service, as if they had been attached to the staff of the allied army, or had followed the British colours from the Tagus to the Adour. The navy have fully kept pace with their brothers in arms, and have illustrated the records of their noble profession with much of interesting history, as well as sound philosophical research.

Now it will not be too much to assume, that much interest has attached both to our naval and military literature, from the circumstance of a certain free, loyal, and honourable tone, inseparably connected with the character, as a body, of the British army and navy. This tone has been found proof against the strongest political excitement of the present hour, that wild and unsettled hour, acknowledged by all thinking men as the most fearful trial to which the English constitution has ever been subject. In every case where the military feeling has been put the least to the test, the officer and soldier have shown that *their duty* is the star to which they look up as the unfailing guide of their conduct as soldiers, however deeply their passions as citizens may be interested in the political strife by which already the ties of friendship have been so rudely loosened, and the claims of kindred and gratitude cast aside and forgotten.

Bold, indeed, must be the man who would venture to put himself forward as a military writer, in disregard and defiance of that high and honourable feeling to which we have alluded; and yet such a man has dared to announce himself the author of one of the most disgraceful libels upon the character of the soldier, and, indeed, upon that of the British nation, that has ever appeared.

> "——— Ille venena Colchica
> Et quicquid usquam concipitur nefas
> Tractavit . . ."

It is called "Defensive Instructions for the People, by Colonel F. Maceroni, late Aide-de-camp to Murat;" published by Smith, in Bouverie-street, and dedicated, we have no doubt without permission, to Colonel Evans. It professes to contain the explanation of a certain system of organization, by which a mob can be enabled to beat an army. All they have to do in the first instance, is to purchase of him, Macerone, a new sort of lance for ten shillings and sixpence

apiece. Once provided with this infallible weapon, he assures his readers, in his eloquent preface, that "instead of powerless slaves, each will become a man determined to have justice, and capable of commanding it." As to their right to carry the ten-and-sixpenny weapons he has invented, he proves it by a simple reference to the "manly exhortations addressed by the Editors of the Times and Morning Chronicle to the suffering people," and concludes his preface by saying he had meant to charge only *one* shilling apiece for his book, but afterwards changed his mind (which is clear enough, for he charges *five*); and also by declaring that he shall be very happy, if "any aggregation of his countrymen in arms so far honour him as to deem his generalship useful, to place him at their head, and share their labours, dangers, and triumphs;" their *plunder*, of course, he would not share for the world. By the expression "countrymen," one might almost imagine he was somehow or other an Englishman; though some of his "Defensive Instructions," such as the *use of vitriolic acid* against soldiers, lead one to doubt it much.

"Tros Tyriúsque mihi nullo discrimine agetur."

But it little matters where the man was born who could propose such a diabolical means of attack or defence. Where is the country that would own him for her son? Next after his preface comes his letter of dedication to Colonel Evans, to whom he takes the liberty of explaining his project of foot lancers, inviting him at the same time to visit him in Bryanston-square, and take some lessons in his lance exercise, for which, of course, he would not require any higher remuneration than Mr. Murphy for instructing the Political Union in the sword exercise.

As for the system he proposes, we shall presently examine its merits, which he tells us are such as to render 1000 men equal to 2000. He also tells us, that he offered his invention to the British army, and in corroboration introduces a gentlemanlike letter (putting him off of course in civil terms) from Lord F. Somerset, whom, in return, he violently abuses for being a *lordling*, and for not writing more legibly; he having lost his right arm, not in gallantly heading Watson's company of the Political Union, armed with ten-and-sixpenny lances, but in the enjoyment of some military sinecure on the plains of Waterloo, while acting upon the staff of that *squire-archical aristocrat* the Duke of Wellington, encouraging, by his gallant example, those British troops, who, we are assured a few pages further, have long since lost all the military valour of their ancestors. If so they were certainly *lucky* at Waterloo.

Colonel Macerone proceeds, to assure us, that "the boroughmongers are the inventors of military schools and barracks, as a cheap provision for their sons and daughters," the latter, we may suppose, being housekeepers of the barracks, and, of course, exercising some cruel monopolies, in the washing and cookery of the soldiers, and applying the profits to parliamentary corruption and the prevention of reform. This doctrine he supports by several quotations from the *Times*, one of which is too remarkable to be omitted. It proposes a conservative guard for the *reform of law* and *recovery of the people's power!* and further states,

"to what extent this force ought *hereafter* to be placed under the control of the executive power of the state, *will be an important question.* We then say to our fellow-subjects *organize and arm.*" It is only wonderful after such a patriotic appeal, that any lances remain unsold in Bryanston-square, or at Messrs. Lacy and Witton's,* in Chamomile-street, where, we are told, they are quite as cheap as at Maccaroni's own house.

In his descriptions and explanations of the weapons, and their use, there is so much more about the patriotism of the Times newspaper, and the boroughmongers, and the oligarchs, and the political unions, that it is not at first very easy to obtain a clear understanding of his propositions; but it appears that he would arm the mob, (according to his plates,) with white leather breeches, and a red stripe down the seam, very flashy caps and feathers, light dragoon jackets, pistols, and *Maccaroni lances.* They are to be a good deal drilled, and we hope frequently and soundly flogged, and are to manœuvre in three ranks; but the lances are the grand point, and we will, therefore, enter upon a fair discussion of their form, construction, and employment. Nine feet is to be the length; and in order to facilitate their being easily carried at the same time as a musket or pistol, they are to have a joint, which is called a ruler joint, but which the ordinary reader will best understand by being told it is just the same as that by which the handle of a lady's parasol is made to fold up into two parts, for convenience of taking less room in a carriage. When the lance is not wanted in action, it is folded precisely in the same way as a parasol, and slung over the man's shoulder by the joint, with one half hanging before, and the other behind him: to prevent its slipping off and tripping up his heels, there is a thing like a shoe-horn sewed upon his shoulder, the end of which sticks up in the air, and keeps the lance in its place. Thus our inventor tell us his mob-hero may be considered quite at liberty with his hands, for making use of his fire-arms. When a boroughmonger charges him, he is not to run away as he did from the police in Finsbury-square, but is quickly to sling his gun over the one shoulder, while he unships the lance from the other, and so setting the pole straight, and slipping the ferrule over the point to secure it, lean his lance forward and spit the squirearchical anti-reformer, like a

---

* It is so satisfactory to find that Macerone is repudiated by the very class of Englishmen whose sense and loyalty he so impudently impeaches, that we cannot resist inserting the following letter, addressed to the Editor of the Times.

To the Editor of the Times.

"Sir,—A work written by 'Francis Macerone,' under the title of *Defensive Instructions for the People*, has just been put into our hands, and we have noticed with much surprise, at its conclusion, the following intimation—

"'Messrs. Lacy and Witton, of Chamomile-street, London, will supply any number of my Foot-Lance equipments at the cheapest possible rate.'

"Never having given Colonel Macerone permission to use our names in the above manner, nor in fact spoken with him at any time on the subject, we have only to add, that it is useless for any party to apply to us, as we never had, nor have, any intention to manufacture articles for the purpose recommended in the above work.

"We are, Sir, your obedient servants,

"Chamomile-street, April 9." "Lacy and Witton."

cockchafer on a pin, just as he rushes on, "panting to lap the blood of the people," in the Times' touching language.

Now, in order to expose the fallacy and imposture of this system, we will suppose that Capt. *Watson*, assisted by Lieut. *Hetherington* and Adjutant *Murphy*, had really drilled the seventieth company of the London Political Union in the sword exercise, at which Murphy is such an adept, in the lance exercise, in which Macérone would so readily instruct them *for a liberal remuneration;* and in the use of the firelock, already so familiar to those who have been used to poaching after tame ducks and wild sparrows in the preserves of Battersea fields; and that the seventieth company could really take the field, or rather the street, as a disciplined body, with Maccaroni prancing on a cart-house at their head. Will any man who has served with the very best trained infantry assert, that any troops, however steady, could be brought to perform such a number of motions as are requisite for exchanging their firelocks for their lances when suddenly charged by cavalry, without utter confusion and defeat? Why even infantry, firing as they advanced, and ending with a rushing charge of the bayonet, would be in upon the seventieth company before half of them could have laid aside their fire-arms, and got their parasol sticks properly fitted to repel them. Half the men, in their desperate stew and agitation, would jerk the shoeing-horns from their shoulder, and the last shower of rain might have swelled the wood of the lance, and prevented the ferrule slipping properly over the joint, upon which every thing depends, and which, in case of the least accident, leaves the bearer perfectly defenceless. Many a poor deluded tinker, or "*chiffonier,*" would then wish himself safe in the Cat and Bagpipes, over his pot of ale, with his pipe in his mouth, the patriotic Times in his hand, his ten and sixpence in his pocket, and the lance, which he bought with it, at the devil; not to mention his gallant officers of the seventieth company, who would have bolted early in the fray, or been seized, without resistance, by Mr. Alfred List, the Inspector, assisted by a few of his excellent division of sturdy Police, who, on a former occasion, gave so wholesome a lesson to Maccaroni's would-be grenadiers.

So much for the foot lancer system, a subject which Maccaroni now quits entirely for a chapter on rifle practice, which he treats without any reference to the boroughmongers, and merely as a military question. Most of his remarks are taken from approved authors on the same subject; and he treats it with very tolerable knowledge of all that relates to the mechanism of the piece, the effects that may be obtained from it on service, and the chief advantages and difficulties which attend the use of the rifle in general.

Almost the only suggestion, however, which can be called his own, is liable to great objections. He proposes the use of a very heavy solid ramrod, by which to force down the ball into the rifle barrel, with as much weight as can be produced by the stroke of a hammer. No doubt in common practice for a wager, such a ramrod would do as well as a hammer for driving home the ball; but Maccaroni has served under Murat to very little purpose, if he is not aware of how serious a matter it is to increase the weight of the piece very con-

siderably by adding such a ponderous bar as he recommends by way of a ramrod.

The next chapter treats of the most approved method of making ball cartridges, and contains some just observations, in a military view, upon this very important and often neglected point; but if, as he professes, this book is for the patriotic purpose of disciplining the mob, it seems very doubtful how far such instructions can be useful for the *chiffonier* battalions. One may, therefore, venture to suspect, that this chapter, which like the former one, has been borrowed from various German and French military writers, is here thrust in, for the sole purpose of *swelling the size* of the "Defensive Instructions for the People," in order to warrant Colonel Macerone in augmenting his price to five shillings, to be extracted from the aforesaid people's pockets, under pretence of teaching them, in a very few easy lessons, how to blow out the brains of the Foot Guards with old horse pistols, and drive umbrella-stick lances through the bodies of the Life Guards and Blues.

In a discussion of the same sort upon the use of buck shot, there is a suggestion of a cartridge belt, carried all round the body, consisting of a single row of tin tubes, sewed into a light leathern girdle, sufficiently loose round the waist to admit of being shifted round when the cartridges in front are exhausted, which certainly appears far better for rifle troops than the present cartridge-box, worn in front of the stomach, and of which the weight is felt much more than if distributed all round the body as proposed; but this is a question of military equipment, and our Colonel now joyfully returns to his mob doctrines, in a chapter entitled "A few Brief Hints which may be useful."

The first of the brief hints relates to organization, *deliberate organization for the purpose of open and premeditated rebellion* against the executive power. Captains and lieutenants are to be named, with badges of distinction tied round their arms; and the commander-in-chief, which naturally means himself, is to wear a tri-coloured scarf. His observations on the best means for the defence of a city, not against a foreign enemy, but against its own natural protectors and constitutionally appointed forces, commence with this notable declaration. "*One great maxim in such strifes must, above all, be adhered to. The sword once drawn, the scabbard must be flung away. Capitulations and conventions are not to be relied on: nothing but the political annihilation of* THE ENEMY *can give any security.*" *Tantœne animis radicalibus iræ?* and is such language as this to be tolerated? Can any thing be more treasonable than the expression of these wicked and most detestable sentiments? Surely, unless the wild ravings of such a man should be deemed beneath the very notice of the law, they come within the just grasp of its retribution; and if the Alien Act has no longer the power of expelling such a viper from the country which has harboured him, he can at least be punished for the daring publication of his seditious and savage advice to an already excited and deluded populace.

The manner in which he next proceeds to treat the art of temporary sap and barricade is purely military, and for the most part inapplicable to the efforts of any but disciplined bodies; in fact, all his remarks on

these matters are taken, as before noticed, from Scharnhorst, and other well-known modern writers: and here, as in other places, he assumes that those persons who are to invest him with the tri-coloured scarf, in which he desires to figure as commander-in-chief, are the respectable middling classes, who, so far from being disposed to loop-hole their homes and barricade their streets, would be the first to offer their gratuitous aid for the suppression of the riot, bloodshed, and pillage, to which it seems his object to excite the populace by every possible delusion and fallacy. He quite forgets that the true British citizen is not the *Citoyen Septembriseur* of the revolution, but an honest and respectable man, born and bred in the love of social order, who, though he may be blinded for a time by the madness of political fever, yet returns to his natural respect for the old institutions of the country the moment any serious disturbance arises from the excitement he had in his temporary enthusiasm unwittingly contributed to foster and encourage. Such a man as this will not volunteer the loan of his sugar hogsheads for the barricades of Colonel Macerone, nor would he at all like passing several hours on his knees pushing the "sap" across a hard macadamised square, or bruising his toes with a pickaxe in converting his well-stocked beer-cellar into a *fougasse* for blowing up a company of foot-guards. Then, as to the fortification of houses, one really cannot imagine the smart young shopmen at Redmayne's, pitching "dung or wet bedding" about upon the well-furnished first floor of that opulent and respectable tradesman "as a preventive against fire," or "removing the roof of the house, and reducing the height of the walls to five feet above the uppermost flooring," in order to convert his rich warehouse into a mob fortress.

But at this part of Maccaroni's arrangement, we must call our reader's attention to the atrocious suggestion of using "boiling water," and "melted lead," as a defence against the assault of troops,—a proposal worthy of the feelings which have dictated many other portions of this disgraceful publication. As if determined to surpass even himself, he announces a few pages further, in speaking of the defence of houses, "*sulphuric or nitric acid will at this moment be very efficacious*," and quotes the case of a Parisian chemist, who in the *glorious days of July* 1830, "spouted showers of sulphuric acid upon the troops, from a small garden engine;" an improbable tale, and too degrading to the character even of the French mob, to be believed upon Colonel Macerone's asseveration. Having exhausted his own materials, Colonel Macerone ends this part of his subject by dragging into public notice a "Paper on popular defence," attributed to that unfortunate man, whose errors might by this time have been allowed to remain buried in his untimely grave, but for the wanton recklessness with which they have been brought forward for the sake of gain by an author of a far higher class than Maceroni. The interest attached to family details, however spurious and false, together with some flourishes of mawkish sensibility, have caused the extensive circulation of a work more injurious to the memory of a misguided but gallant officer, than any thing Macerone could introduce in his mob regulations.

"O Cives, Cives, quærenda pecunia primùm,
Virtus post nummos."

But, to return from this digression, we are favoured with another lecture on the use of "Burning Acids," which actually is the title of a chapter in which Maccaroni tells us, after a good deal about the effect of aqua fortis and glass bottle grenades, that "all this would be very horrid work, were it not that the trade of despotism must be put down with similar means to those by which it has been set up." Trite suggestions, and explanations of field fortification, taken, as in the former instance, from Scharnhorst and others, fill up many more pages, till we gladly approach the conclusion of a work in almost every part of which, except what he has borrowed from others, there is a malignant and barbarous spirit, sufficient alone to disgust every liberal and manly mind, independent of the foul stain of rebellion in which the writer so proudly glories.

To the rhapsody with which Colonel *Maccaroni* winds up his performance, it is impossible to do justice, except by transcribing the most remarkable passage.

"It is generally observed, that nothing tends more to dishearten and disorganize troops, than the fall of their officers. But over and above this military maxim, *in the species of war we are contemplating*, to *floor* the officers becomes of infinitely more importance. First, because we may have reason to expect, in such case, without their active superintendence and influence, the men, ashamed of and disgusted with their cause and occupation, would slacken in their efforts, retire from the contest, or actually join us. Secondly, because in this country, the commands in the army and navy, and all other good things in church and state, being regarded and held by the Aristocracy and Squirearchy, as rights and freeholds appertaining exclusively to their order, it follows, that the officers of the British army as a class, are the avowed supporters of a system which works so well for themselves, and are consequently the bitterest enemies to all *reform*. On this account, therefore, it becomes doubly necessary to recommend them to the attention of OUR sharpshooters. And, the higher their rank, the more attention should be paid to them; an infantry officer on horseback, for instance, should receive the honour of at least a dozen rifles. But do not, *my* friends, mistake your men. That smooth-faced youth, whose chest and shoulders are buried in gorgeous epaulettes, is no field-marshal, no, nor yet a general, nor a colonel, nor a major, nor mayhap a captain, but only a lieutenant or cornet!! Spare him, good Sirs, but commend me to yon straight-coated cocked-hatted gentleman, with nothing but a sort of footman's shoulder-knot to decorate him—he is a general or a field officer; let him be attended to."

If this is not rebellion in its blackest form, what possibly can deserve that name? As to the idea of the British soldier ever forgetting his loyalty and fidelity to his colours, though his officers were picked off to the very last by their dastardly opponents, the very supposition is a false and insidious calumny. Macerone does not know the men he speaks of. HIS DUTY will always be the faithful guide of the British soldier, and will bear him through every seduction. That noble feeling of duty peculiar to his plain, brave, and honest character

> "Duris ut ilex tonsa bipennibus
> Nigræ feraci frondis in Algido,
> Per damna, per cædes ab ipso
> Ducit opes, animumque, ferro."

ON THE MARITIME POPULATION OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

NO. IV.

As a careful and candid inquiry into the moral condition of that portion of our commercial marine employed in the service of the Honourable the East India Company, must necessarily form an important part in all discussions bearing on the past and present state of our maritime population, we propose, as the subject of our present essay, to offer a few remarks on the government and guidance of those ships,—as their good order and efficiency is intimately connected with the well-being of our regular merchant-men, with the prosperity of our foreign trade, and the progressive moral improvement of our seamen in general. It will be acknowledged by all who are in any degree acquainted with the subject, that whether in point of neat, smart, serviceable, and seaman-like appearance, or in general outfit and equipment, the ships in the service of the East India Company have always been alike creditable to their employers, and honourable to the officer under whose command they have been placed; and from the days of Capt. James Lancaster, (who in the reign of Queen Elizabeth commanded the first fleet of the then infant Company,) to our own time, they have most nobly supported the honour of the British arms and the glory of the British flag.

Entwined as the achievements of the Honourable Company's shipping are with our naval greatness, still, as a nursery for seamen, they have never been of much importance to the state: and it forms no part of our present design to inquire whether the freight produced by those splendid vessels, has ever been equal to the enormous outlay incident to what we may well call the almost royal magnificence of their appointment; or, in a mere commercial point of view, (setting patronage altogether out of the question,) if the trade with our possessions in the East might not have been carried on as well, and at infinitely less expense, in the ordinary run of merchant-ships. True it is, that so far as London is concerned, the ships in the service of the Honourable Company are justly esteemed of first-rate local importance; they give employment to the innumerable tribes of naval artisans connected with that port, and encouragement to the various building establishments and manufacturers of naval stores situated on the river Thames. They have, moreover, been the means of forcing no small traffic into the hands of the commercial people residing in our crowded metropolis.

It is not, however, to questions of disbursement and return incident to the ships, but to matters of riot and insubordination too frequently exhibited by the seamen in the Company's service, that we first mean to allude; we shall afterwards endeavour to assign a cause, and attempt to point out a remedy for this unfortunate state of things.

It cannot have escaped the notice of our readers, that a vast proportion of the striking cases of mutiny and insurrection peculiar of late years to the seamen engaged in the commercial marine of the country, are reported as having taken place in the ships of the India Company, and more instances of disaffection have been made public through the law-courts as coming from that service, than from any other portion of our maritime trade, foreign or domestic. Nay, we have been inform-

ed, that a greater quantity of corporal punishment takes place in the few ships of the Company, than in the whole of our regular Navy. Whence, it may well be asked, arises this constant struggle between authority and obedience; this unvaried recurrence of riot and coercion in a service which (His Majesty's alone excepted) provides for the comforts and conveniences of its people better than all others? where the voyages are by much the least laborious of any that are made; where the allowance of provisions (that never-failing source of discontent) is abundant, and the quality unexceptionable; where every possible attention is paid to the sick and infirm; a service, we may add, officered by gentlemen conspicuous for their general information and intelligence, and long considered the first practical navigators in the world?*

It is much to be regretted, that the vitiated and demoralised condition (arising from causes to which we called the attention of our readers in a recent Number) in which the return of peace found the greater part of our maritime population, though every day becoming less visible in our ships-of-war, (for reasons to which we shall presently allude,) is still, after the lapse of so many years, awfully present and severely felt throughout the whole commercial marine, more particularly in the ships of the Hon. East India Company. This arises, so far as the Honourable Company are concerned, from two causes: first, from the very loose manner in which the *written law*, (for there is a written and an oral code,) intended for the guidance of those employed in the commercial navy, is interpreted; added to the difficulty and delay incident to courts of law: in the second place, from the size of the ships in the service of the East India Company, and the very discordant materials of which their ships' companies are composed. But the grand causes of that vice and immorality too frequently conspicuous in the sailors of the commercial marine, proceeds almost entirely from the apathy of the merchants themselves, who, "digging in the mine of mammon" since the return of peace, have not, as yet, found time for the active employment of any measures calculated to rescue the seamen in their service from the degraded condition into which they have been sunk.

Our readers are, perhaps, not aware that there are three distinct systems of law by which the maritime population of this mighty empire are governed;—martial law, of course, in the navy, oral law in the regular merchant ships, and written law in those of the Hon. East

* While serving on the India station during the war, we had no opportunity of judging how far the seamen were contented and happy in the Company's ships. Impressment was then the order of the day. The dislike which that and certain other measures generated in the minds of the sailors to His Majesty's ships, joined to the very natural wish to remain on high wages, overcame all other considerations, and kept them quiet. Since the peace, however, (having served in India in no less than three different ships of war,) we have had ample means of discovering the extreme unpopularity of the Company's service. We found the men always willing to volunteer for the Navy. When at any time our complement suffered diminution from sickness or death, or the occasional necessity of sending drafts of men to assist in carrying home the new-built teak ships; in short, from whatever cause, we were at no loss for recruits the moment we fell in with any of the Company's ships, though we do not recollect an instance of our having obtained a single man from any of the numerous free traders who frequent British India.

India Company. On board of His Majesty's ships, where martial law prevails, there no longer exists that absolute and almost irresponsible authority which has too frequently been found to produce a spirit of proud unceasing recklessness in those who have, unfortunately for themselves and others, been entrusted with it: on the contrary, the captain of a ship-of-war is now held strictly responsible for every instance of punishment that he may be under the necessity of inflicting. No punishment is ever suffered to take place until a certain time has elapsed from the commission of the offence; a warrant is then drawn out, setting forth the full particulars of the case, the general character of the offending party, the names of witnesses, &c. which document is signed by the captain, and forwarded to the Admiralty, through his commander-in-chief, who invariably inquires into every complaint preferred by the seamen againt their officers. Since the return of peace, moreover, a race of men has sprung up in the King's ships attached to the service, and fully equal to all its duties, who, when paid off in one vessel, invariably volunteer for another. The improved institutions of the naval service are well adapted to the views and feelings of this class of men; and the laws by which they are governed being in strict unison with their habits and opinions, they are contented and happy in the service of a country which treats them with kindness and consideration in sickness or in health, and secures them from poverty and wretchedness in their declining years. So far, therefore, as seamen are required, the navy at the present moment is much less dependent on the merchant-service than it was in former days, and there is accordingly less interchange and connexion between the two services.

In our regular merchant-vessels, where the *oral law* is pretty much in use, the shipmaster, from time immemorial, has held a sort of patriarchal authority over his people; a system well adapted to the genius and disposition of a race trained and enured to it from their early youth; and were the commercial body to come forward, and earnestly endeavour to effect some improvement in the moral nature of those men, their government would be a matter of very little difficulty; they have all the groundwork materials for becoming one of the best, as they already are decidedly the most useful and interesting portion of our population. An utter want of intelligence is the great defect of the merchant service; and unfortunately the employers, as a body, have shown no sympathy for the employed in this respect; no wish to enlarge their conceptions, and lift them up from the "death-trance of ignorance" in which they are plunged; no desire to raise the general standard of information in their service; and by education, to force upon the minds of their people a conviction that they are moral and accountable beings. The British merchants complain of the immorality of the seamen in their employments, while by dock monopolies, and other systems equally pernicious, they throw stumbling-blocks in the way of their moral improvement: they accuse them of profligacy, while they suffer them to remain "living sepulchres of ignorance;" they tax them with ingratitude, while they cast them loose the moment they have ceased to be useful, (that is, the instant the voyage is completed,) despised and disregarded, amid the haunts of pollution and vice with which our sea-ports are but too well provided; and were it

not for the liberal conduct of Government in furnishing floating-chapels, aided by the anxious endeavours of many benevolent individuals, the Sabbath might pass unheeded by our merchant-seamen, and the sublime truths and moral beauties of the Gospel might never reach their ears.

The ships in the service of the Hon. the East India Company, officered by gentlemen wearing uniform, and manned by the crimp, (a public benefit only in so far as he is a public nuisance,) are governed by the ill-defined *written law* of the land. "What (says Mr. Baron Vaughan*) does the law authorise you to do in the case of misconduct? To inflict moderate punishment. The punishment must be moderate, and proportioned to the offence; and though the party guilty of misconduct may bring *his action,* if he can show that the punishment was disproportioned to the offence, yet he must adopt *a course the law points* out for that purpose." This then is law; but what is "moderate?" And how is the seaman who may have received correction out of all proportion to the degree of his offence, to bring "his action?" How a fore-mast man is to acquire the means of coming into court, "of adopting the course the law points out," the learned Judge sayeth not. Besides, the law authorities within the reach and, of course, usually consulted by the seamen, (viz. the pettifoggers and land-sharks of our sea-port towns,) assure him that as the India ships do not sail under *letter of marque,* (as in time of war,) the captain has no right whatever to inflict corporal punishment,—an opinion in which, to a certain extent, we have seen them borne out by the police magistrates, who seem to consider that it is only in cases of *open mutiny and violence* that punishment is to be resorted to. Thus a doubt is created in the minds of the men; they question the power and authority of their officers. In the language of a learned Judge,† "they leave this country upon a foreign voyage, under the impression that it is for them, and not for the responsible officers, to decide how the discipline of the ship is to be carried on." The naval part of our readers know well what consequences would arise in a man-of-war, were the slightest shadow of doubt suffered to exist in respect to the authority of the captain. It is this undisputed power, more than the exercise of it, that constitutes the wisdom of naval government, always providing that the person in whose hands the authority is placed, shall be under the most strict personal responsibility to his superiors for the exercise of it. But there is no superior authority to which either officers or men in the merchant service can appeal without enormous expense and ruinous detention. The law is said to place certain powers in the hands of the commander of a ship; it sends him forth to the uttermost parts of the earth, and on his return, requires no account of his stewardship; no list of punishments is ever called for; no inquiry is made with respect to the tyranny and oppression that may have been exercised on the one hand, or to the profligacy and disobedience that may have existed on the other. The law is deaf, and blind, and dumb in this case. Now it is not a passive, but an active and inquiring superior

* See Lamb *v.* Burnet, judgment of Court of Exchequer, on the 19th January 1831.

† Mr. Baron Garrow.

authority, (which shall be to the commercial what the Admiralty is to the Royal Navy,) that is wanted. If there is any case in which cheap justice is required, it is here; some court of easy access, to which both officers and men shall be held responsible, and which shall demand an account of their proceedings. As matters stand at present, the captain of an Indiaman in particular is placed between alternatives, which offer him only a choice of dangers and of difficulties. If he temporizes when a spirit of discontent has manifested itself in his ship, and waits, (according to the law laid down by the police magistrates,) until it has assumed the character of *open violence*, he runs the risk of sacrificing ship and cargo, and of seeing murder added to the crimes of mutiny and insurrection; if, on the other hand, he, as in duty bound, holds by the authority of the Judges of the land, adopts the course which the law, as interpreted by them, has placed in his hand, and sternly represses the first outbreak of an unquiet spirit, it is at the manifest hazard of a law process in some of the inferior courts in the first instance, and the positive certainty of having his name held up to universal execration, by the supporters of a corrupt and venal press, in the second.

We have already said, that the size of the India Company's ships, and the very discordant materials of which those ships' companies are composed, is another cause of the turbulent and unruly conduct so frequently exhibited in that class of vessel. Unlike the men-of-war and regular merchant-men, the ships of the Company have no class of seamen peculiarly their own, bred up in their service, and accustomed to its laws and usages; nay, they are too frequently places of refuge for the discarded ruffians and reprobates of the two former services. In calmly investigating this matter, the first thing that presents itself to our consideration, is the very mixed character of what may be termed the mongrel race employed, whether under the respectable denomination of seamen, or in any of the vast variety of subordinate situations peculiar to India ships. Independent of the thorough-bred tars, there are usually to be found certain individuals called, in the language of the docks, Blackwall Irishmen—sailors but not seamen: they have, moreover, an occasional sprinkling of a race of aquatic adventurers, figuratively denominated Old Men-of-war's Men, *i. e.* skulking vagabonds, who in all probability have been turned out of the service, and whose discontent proceeds from sheer profligacy. Then there are the confectioners, and cooks, and butchers, and bakers, stewards, assistants, and others, the cankers of a calm world and a long peace; officers and cabin servants, fellows to look after dogs, horses, pigs, cows, poultry, and other live stock, serve to make up the show; there are the discarded, unjust servingmen, younger sons to younger brothers, revolted tapsters, and ostlers trade-fallen, with which (like Falstaff) the captain of an Indiaman has to fill up his ranks. Sometimes interest, or vanity, or an affectation of taste, may tempt him to add a few musicians to this motley assemblage. The annoyance which such persons inflict, is rarely compensated by the concord of sweet harmony which they create. Your fiddler is always a dissipated, and, not unfrequently, a dissolute and unprincipled character; needy when on shore, because of his dissipation; discontented when afloat, having been driven thither by his debauchery. Thus we find the captain of an Indiaman

called upon to preside over a most Noah's-ark-like establishment, brought together from the four corners of the earth, engaged merely for the voyage out and home, having no service tie, no community of interest or of object, save to do as little work as they possibly can. Of course there can be no *esprit de corps*, or, to use a more seaman-like phrase, *pulling together*, without which how is it possible for an officer to manage such a mixed multitude? Like the soldiers of Macbeth, those he commands move only in command, nothing in love. But this is not all; an outward-bound ship is always crowded with troops and passengers. At the very time she should be put into some order, there are writers and surgeons going to their appointments, and young *gulpins* going to their regiments,—classes of people, be it observed, who, if there happens to be one place in a ship where they shall be more in the way than another, are sure to find out and occupy that place with all the unerring certainty of instinct: truly the captain of an Indiaman has no sinecure. The improvements in steam navigation must ultimately draw off the passengers from the Indiamen, and, of course, the tag-rag domestics and others, their attendants. This will make them more of ships and less of floating taverns, and be of infinite advantage to their discipline and good management. The association of seamen with so large a portion of dissipated and discontented landsmen, is nearly as injurious to their moral nature, as the baneful practice that was resorted to in the course of the late war, of sending convicts and felons into His Majesty's ships.

Having now pointed out, as briefly as our limits will permit, a few of the leading causes of discontent and disaffection in the commercial marine, we shall pause for a moment to remark, that of all the fallacy that has been promulgated of late years on what may be called the moral causes of this evil, there is no sophism more absurd than the one which attempts to refer the disorderly conduct of the commercial to some supposed relaxation of discipline in the Royal Navy. This is substituting fancy for investigation, or rather accounting for an effect by at once assuming a principle, which ought to have been proved in the first instance, for unless the supporters of this theory can show that the improvements which have taken place in the discipline of the navy since the return of peace, have been productive of riot and discontent, rather than of goodwill and obedience, their argument (if it be worthy of the name) goes for nothing. Now we pronounce it to be a fact, that will bear the most searching scrutiny, that at no former period of our history did the country possess the services of a more efficient or better-disciplined fleet, more especially in the good order and devoted attachment of the seamen; and whatever may have been the errors of Government during the war, arising chiefly from the pernicious measures that unfortunately were adopted for the purpose of manning the fleet, since the return of peace, the naval administration of the country, *so far as the seamen are concerned*, has been at once wise, liberal, and humane. *No private interest* has been suffered to interfere with the welfare of *the seamen* in His Majesty's service, or private monopoly to become the means of their moral contamination; such baneful treatment is reserved by the merchants for the sailors in their employment, whose general character and conduct bear ample testimony to this melancholy fact.

N. C.

CAPTURE OF THE SPANISH SLAVER, MARINERITO, BY THE BLACK JOKE.

In laying before our readers an account of the capture of the Spanish armed slave brig Marinerito, by His Majesty's brig Black Joke, tender to His Majesty's ship Dryad, we do not pretend that we have any thing very remarkable to record; but as we consider it our duty to give the facts connected with every thing in the shape of an action, we shall, without further prelude, relate all the circumstances of this affair from authentic sources.

On Friday the 22nd of April 1831, His Majesty's brig Black Joke, commanded by Lieut. Ramsay, anchored at Fernando Po, in order to take on board a set of sweeps that had been sent out from England for her use. There the Lieutenant learned from Mr. Mather, who commanded one of the colonial vessels, that he had just left in the Old Calabar a large armed Spanish slave-brig, supposed to be almost ready for sea; he described her as the finest slaver that had been on the coast for some years, carrying one pivot and four broadside guns, with a crew of about seventy picked men, some of whom were reported to be English. The vessel herself appeared by her movements to be in complete man-of-war order, but as no one was permitted to go on board, her interior arrangements could not be exactly ascertained. Mr. Mather dined on shore several times in company with some of her officers, and he stated, that in course of conversation they made no secret of their intention of fighting if necessary, and even laughed at the idea of being taken by the Black Joke, with whose force they were well acquainted; and as for the two gun-brigs that were on the station, they were totally out of the question, on account of their bad sailing.

The Black Joke put to sea that evening, proceeded to the Old Calabar, and commenced a strict blockade of that port, anchoring every night at the mouth of the river, weighing before daylight, and running out with the land breeze far enough not to be seen from the shore. This plan was practised until Monday, April the 25th, when about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, a large brig was seen from the mast-head, under all sail, standing out of the river, the Black Joke's topsails were immediately lowered, by which means the stranger was within sight from the deck before he made out who his antagonist was. He then altered his course from steering directly down, and kept away so as to cross the tender's bow, and pass between Fernando Po and the main. All sail was now made in chase, and every requisite preparation for a severe contest, in doing which, a spirit was evinced both by the officers and men, that left no doubt as to the result, whatever might be the enemy's superiority of force. The Spaniard sailed so well that it was nine o'clock at night before the Black Joke could get within range of the slaver; indeed, if he had not been becalmed under the lee of Fernando Po, it is very doubtful whether he would not have made his escape. A shot, however, was now fired a-head of him, as a signal to bring to, which he immediately returned by three of his broadside guns, and the wind fell so light that both vessels had recourse to their sweeps, making in this way a running fight, until about half-past one on Tuesday morning. The Black Joke was then so near, that it

became evident a close action must ensue; upon which the Spaniard hauled up his courses, and with his sweeps so managed his vessel as to keep up a determined fire, almost every shot telling upon the spars, rigging, and sails of the tender. Lieut. Ramsay, in consideration of the superior number of guns of his adversary, as well as to spare, if possible, the lives of the wretched slaves, resolved upon boarding without delay; fortunately a light air favoured his intentions, and the helm was put a starboard. Meanwhile the men were ordered to lie down, to be sheltered from the enemy's fire. Two steady men were to be ready to lash the vessels together,—the two guns were loaded with grape, and their captains were desired to fire directly the word board was given; all being prepared, the Black Joke ran alongside the Spaniard,—the order to board was given—the two guns were fired—and Lieut. Ramsay, with Mr. Bosanquet the mate, and about ten men, leaped on board, but from the force with which the two vessels met, they unluckily separated again before the rest of the boarders could follow. Mr. Hinde, however, a midshipman not fifteen years of age, the only officer left on board, with extraordinary presence of mind, ordered all hands to the starboard sweeps, pulled alongside, got the vessels lashed, and then boarded, leaving only one or two wounded men behind.

With this reinforcement the combat was soon decided,—those who continued to resist were quickly cut down, the rest ran below, and begged for quarter. Nor ought it to be omitted, that Mr. Pearce, a young midshipman, was pushed overboard with a sabre by one of the Spaniards, but ultimately succeeded in regaining his station by means of the fore-sheet.

The captured vessel proved to be the Spanish brig Marinerito, a beautiful new vessel of upwards of 300 tons, armed with one pivot long gun (a Spanish eighteen-pounder), and four broadside guns (short longs), all of the same calibre. She had twelve officers, and sixty-five men, of whom fifteen were killed or drowned, and several wounded, some very dangerously. There were found 496 slaves on board, of whom, horrible to say, owing to the necessity of confining them below during the action, and perhaps aided by terror,—twenty-six were found dead when the hatches were opened, although it was done the instant that complete possession had been obtained. Of the remainder of the slaves, 107 were in such a state from want of air during their confinement below, that it was thought advisable to send them on shore at Fernando Po, as the only chance of saving their lives, and of these about sixty died, the rest were ultimately landed at Sierra Leone.

All the slaves appeared to be fully sensible of their deliverance, and upon being released from their irons, expressed their gratitude in the most forcible and pleasing manner. If the Spaniards had given them this liberty, it would have been the signal for a general massacre of their oppressors. The poor creatures took every opportunity of singing a song, testifying their thankfulness to the English, and by their willingness to obey and assist, rendered the passage to Sierra Leone easy and pleasant to the officers and men who had them in charge.

The Black Joke carried one pivot long eighteen-pounder gun, and one carronade of the same calibre, with a crew of thirty-eight seamen and marines, and six officers. Her loss was one seaman killed; Lieut.

Ramsay severely wounded; Mr. Bosanquet the mate, and five men also wounded;—running and standing rigging much cut, her spars considerably damaged,—and larboard-bow and quarter stove in.

We must not dismiss this spirited and successful action without noticing the alacrity with which Commodore Hayes testified his approbation of the service; and we are gratified to add, that the strong recommendations which he made upon the subject, procured the promotion of Lieut. Ramsay, Mr. Bosanquet, and Mr. Douglas the assistant-surgeon. It is thus that ardour and zeal are encouraged, so that the nation may reap the benefit of the utmost energies of its servants; but what else could we have expected of an officer, who to tried and proved proficiency in professional duties, unites a goodness of heart and kindness of disposition that render him the object of general esteem?

REMARKS ON STEAM VESSELS.

BY CAPT. CHARLES NAPIER, R.N.

It is generally thought the invention of steam-boats will be injurious to the interests of this country, and hurtful to our naval superiority, and the late Admiralty appear to have been of that opinion, if we may judge by the little attention they paid to the subject. The present Board have taken a more extended view, and are preparing for the change that will be produced in maritime warfare.

I am not one of those who fancy that our line-of-battle ships will become useless, and that war will be carried on by steam-boats only; before that comes to pass, we must find means of working without fuel: till then steam-boats will be to the navy what cavalry is to the army; *they* can only act in particular countries and where forage is to be had. Steam-boats can act in all seas, but they must have forage also. As auxiliaries, they will be of the utmost importance, and it appears to me we only required that invention to make maritime war perfect, and to render the navy more triumphant than it was in the brightest epoch of our history, and at the same time diminish the great expense of war; and I shall endeavour, as concisely as I can, to point out my reasons for entertaining such an opinion.

In the first place, the danger and expense of blockading will be at an end, and it will only be necessary to keep a few steam-boats, in addition to frigates, off the enemy's coast to watch their motions, and who, in almost any weather, and in a given time, can convey intelligence of their having put to sea.

2nd. If an enemy's fleet is once got sight of, an action is inevitable; a steam-boat will be despatched to keep sight of them, and others, in the event of the wind being light or calm, will tow our ships up, attack their rear, and thereby bring on a general action.

Gantheaume's squadron would never have escaped from Sir John Warren, Jerome Buonaparte from Sir John Duckworth, or the two sail of the line from Sir Alexander Cochrane in the West Indies, had there been a couple of steam-boats with them. When the enemy was

attacked at Trafalgar in two lines, several of our rear ships, in consequence of light winds, could not get into action; had steam-boats been in use, or had those ships been fitted with paddles, they would have got alongside the enemy, and probably not a ship would have escaped; and after the action the captured ships would have been towed out to sea and the greater part saved. Should ships be dismasted and drop out of action, they will now be enabled to regain their station.

3rd. The enemy will find no safety in their outer roads; in Toulon, for instance, they will not only be attackable by fire-ships, but with a sufficient number of steamers a fleet may be towed in at night against a moderate breeze, and when they had done their work would have a fair wind to retreat. No enemy's port is invulnerable with a fair wind in and out; steam makes the wind always fair, and, once alongside your enemy, batteries are useless.

Had Lord Nelson been defeated at Copenhagen, or Lord Exmouth at Algiers, their squadrons would have been lost unless favoured by wind in their retreat; and had Sir James Saumarez been assisted by steamers when the breeze failed him at Algeziras, instead of losing the Hannibal, he would have taken the French squadron; in short, steam has gained such a complete conquest over the elements, that it appears to me we are now in possession of all that was required to make maritime war perfect; and such a field is open to the enterprise of our officers and seamen, that I know of no place where an enemy will be safe, except in their inner harbours, or probably in their basins, until a new system of defence is adopted, and if we are prepared at the beginning of war, they will be nearly annihilated before they find out the old system is imperfect.

4th. The landing troops on an enemy's coast will be attended with no danger, as they will be put on shore and re-embarked under cover of steam-boats made to draw little more than three feet, expressly for that purpose.

5th. Nothing but a strong breeze right into a harbour can prevent a fleet putting to sea. Formerly ships were detained in port many days after the enemy was out, and I forget how much time Lord Nelson lost by not being able to get through the Gut of Gibraltar.

Had Sir James Gordon been assisted by steam-boats up the Potomac, we should have done more in one day than was done in ten by warping, and been in time to have enabled the army to have retreated by the right bank of the Potomac, and laid the whole country under contribution with perfect safety.

The above are the principal advantages we shall gain by machinery; it is now proposed to examine what our enemies are likely to draw from it.

1st. We must calculate that they will have numerous steam privateers fitted out on the north coast of France, to intercept our trade in the narrow seas; we must have harbours or basins to receive our trade, for the Downs will be no protection for them, and we must meet them with the same arm; and when I consider the great expense of steam-boats, the liability of the engines to get out of order, if not made of the best materials, and the proverbial carelessness and fickleness of the character of privateer men, I am fully certain, that a few bad cruizes, and a few accidents, will put an end to that danger.

2nd. Should our ships be becalmed off the enemy's coast where steam-boats are stationed, and where we have none to oppose them, we may expect worse punishment than we occasionally met with in the Gut of Gibraltar and in the Baltic from the enemy's gun-boats, unless our ships are fitted with paddles, which will at once put them in a situation to defend themselves. Should we be at war with America, it will be impossible to enter their great rivers, or, indeed, approach their coast in fine weather, if unsupported by steam-boats or unprovided with paddles. In the event of war with the Northern Powers, a large steam force will be indispensably necessary in the Baltic for the protection of our commerce.

Lastly, the most important point to examine is, whether, in the event of an invasion, our enemies will gain any thing by the invention of steam. Should they build a large number of vessels for that purpose, it is evident we shall be under the necessity of building a considerable number for our defence; an action at sea will then approach near to a land fight, and I have no doubt that with the superiority of our sea tactics, assisted by those of land, and combined with the excellence of our machinery, and the innate bravery of our officers and seamen fighting on their own element, we shall always have the advantage. The superiority of our machinery, and the genius of our engineers for its improvement, is far beyond most other nations; our coals are also better,—we are, therefore, in possession of three essentials, but our officers are entirely ignorant of the manner of conducting machinery. It will never do in action to trust the safety of a steam man-of-war, and the honour of the British flag, to the description of men that now manage engines; their ideas are not accustomed to war, they are of a peculiar description of character, impatient of control, and extremely difficult to manage; and as the manœuvring of the ship, and the consequent advantage, depends entirely on the engineer, it is indispensably necessary that not only the captain, but all the officers, should have a complete knowledge of the steam-engine. In action, a lieutenant must be stationed in the engine-room, with active, clever men, ready at a moment's warning to back or advance the engines the moment that orders are given to that effect. With an enterprising captain, and the engines well attended, it is impossible to say what noble deeds may be performed.

I have paid a good deal of attention to steam navigation for some years past, and I am satisfied it requires a great deal of practical knowledge to conduct that description of vessels, which is not to be acquired in a day. It is absolutely necessary that young men should be brought up in steam-boats to acquire a sufficient knowledge to be of service in war; they will become the cavalry of the navy, and be the post of honour and of danger, and it is not beneath officers of any rank or standing to apply themselves to that branch. It is not impossible, in future general actions, that a commander-in-chief's flag may be flying in one, which would enable him to convey his orders to each captain of the fleet, instead of fighting like a pirate ship, unconscious of what is passing around him.

CHARLES NAPIER, Captain, R.N.

MEMOIR OF THE SERVICES OF THE LATE MAJOR-GEN. JOHN MURRAY.

In recording the death of an excellent man and gallant officer, a brief notice of his military career is not only acceptable to the companions in arms who served with him, and still survive to cheer by their presence their domestic hearths, but also to many other members of his noble profession who take interest in such narratives.

The subject of the present sketch was a native of Jamaica, a younger son of Walter Murray Esq. of St. James's in that island. He entered the service in His Majesty's 37th regiment in 1792. On the breaking out of the war in the following year, the 37th was amongst the first of the British army sent over to Ostend, and very shortly after their landing went into action. In one of the early sorties Ensign Murray was wounded by a ball in the face, which remained in his head for more than a fortnight, and then fell through the roof of his mouth. He obtained his Lieutenancy in the same regiment, and was afterwards taken prisoner, with nearly half of his corps, on the banks of the Waal in Holland, in consequence of mistaking from their dress a division of the French cavalry for the British. Being detained a prisoner for a length of time, on his release he was promoted in the same regiment to the rank of Captain, accompanying it to Gibraltar and the West Indies. He obtained his Majority in the 4th regiment, and after the peace of 1802 was appointed to the 39th.

When the 100th regiment was raised he joined as Lieut.-Colonel, and was sent with them to British North America. He then became Inspecting Field-officer of the Canadian militia, and in that capacity had the command of the army in advance, intended to check the proceedings of a very superior force of the United States army, whose object was to render the position of the British untenable, by laying waste the whole of the frontier of Upper Canada. Colonel Murray marched with his comparatively small body of troops to meet the enemy, obliging him to abandon the enterprise, and taking Fort George, drove him out of the province. The subsequent assault and capture of the Fort of Niagara is thus mentioned in "General Orders," dated Quebec, Dec. 29th 1813.

"The fort of Niagara was most gallantly carried by assault at the point of the bayonet, at daybreak on the morning of the 19th inst. by a detachment consisting of the grenadiers of the Royals, the flank companies of the 41st, the 100th regiment, and a small party of the royal artillery, under the command of Colonel Murray. The enemy suffered severely in killed and wounded. Capt. Leonard, the commandant, together with several officers, and the greater part of the garrison, were made prisoners. This gallant enterprise was achieved with the loss on our part of very few of our brave men; but his Excellency has to regret the fall of Lieut. Nolan of the 100th regiment, and that Colonel Murray has been wounded. All the ordnance mounted in the fort, together with three thousand stand of arms, clothing, and military stores of every description, to a considerable amount, have fallen into our hands. His Excellency is in hourly expectation of receiving the official details of this brilliant affair, which reflects the highest honour upon Colonel Murray and the small detachment under his command."

When, by the peace, Colonel Murray's services were no longer required in Canada, thinking his health might benefit by a residence in a milder climate, he passed some time in France, but having there the misfortune to lose his wife, whose early death was the source of deep affliction to him, he returned in broken health and spirits to England, and after a long and painful illness, borne with his characteristic patience and fortitude, he died at Brighton on the 21st of February last, leaving an only daughter, yet a child.

MEMOIR OF THE SERVICES OF THE LATE REAR-ADMIRAL FOWKE.

On Monday April 2nd, died, rather suddenly, at his residence, Sible Hedingham, Essex, George Fowke, Esq. Rear-Admiral of the Red. This officer had attended divine service with his family the preceding day, both morning and evening, and retired to his bed apparently in good health. About three o'clock in the morning he was taken ill, and exclaimed to Mrs. Fowke, "Oh! my back!" and instantly the vital spark had ceased to exist. The cause of this sudden and unexpected dissolution is said to have been produced by an affection of the heart.

Mr. Fowke entered the Navy rather young, and having gone through the classes of Midshipman and Master's Mate, was, November 22nd 1790, promoted to the rank of Lieutenant. In March following, he was appointed Lieutenant of the Spitfire sloop, Capt. Fremantle; and in March 1793 nominated to the Prince, of 98 guns, Capt. (afterwards Lord) Collingwood, and bearing the flag of Rear-Admiral Bowyer, attached to the Channel fleet, under the orders of Admiral Lord Howe. At the end of the same year, Capt. Collingwood removed into the Barfleur, and took with him Lieut. Fowke, from which ship he was appointed, in July 1794, to the Glory, Capt. J. Bourmaster, both ships forming part of the Channel fleet.

Lieut. Fowke did not remain any long period in the Glory, and in September of the same year, became one of the Lieutenants of the Santa Margaretta, Capt. Eliab Harvey, attached to the advanced squadron off Brest, under the orders of Sir John Borlase Warren.

On the 29th September 1795, Lieut. Fowke was promoted to the rank of Commander, and to command the Swallow, a fir-built sloop, of 18 guns. The Swallow was for a short time attached to the North Sea fleet, and subsequently was ordered to the Leeward Islands, and placed under the orders of Rear-Admiral Henry Harvey. From this station, the Swallow went to Jamaica to be attached to the squadron under the command of Vice-Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, on both of which stations several captures were made.

The 9th July 1798, Capt. Fowke obtained his Post rank; and in November of that year, was appointed to the Proselyte, of 32 guns, in the room of Capt J. Loring. The Proselyte was also belonging to the Jamaica station, and from thence sent to Barbadoes to join the Leeward Island squadron, and for the reduction of St. Martin's was one of the ships that conveyed the troops under the orders of

Brig.-Generals Maitland and Fuller. Saint Martin's capitulated on the 4th Sept. 1801; the Proselyte was lost off that island.

Capt. Fowke was in September 1807, nominated superintendant of the ships fitted for the reception of prisoners of war in the river Medway, and appointed to the Rochester, from which ship he was removed into the Irresistible, in March 1808, on the same service. On the appointment of Admiral Sir Richard H. Bickerton, in April 1812, as Commander-in-chief at Portsmouth, Capt. Fowke was appointed to the Royal William, the flag-ship, but that ship, the age of which was unknown, although it could be traced back as far as October 1679, when she came into harbour to be laid up in ordinary, was found so defective as to be unfit for further service, and in 1813 was broken up. The Prince, of 98 guns, was then fitted for the reception of Sir Richard H. Bickerton's flag, and Capt. Fowke appointed to command her, which he continued to do until the period of the Admiral's command expired.

In October 1819, Capt. Fowke was appointed to superintend the Ordinary at Sheerness, which he held for three years, when he was superseded.

A promotion of Flag officers taking place on the 27th May 1825, Capt. Fowke became Rear-Admiral of the Blue, but never hoisted his flag.

He has left a widow and several children, one of whom, it is understood, is a Lieutenant in the Royal Navy.

MARINE RAILWAYS.

Believing that the columns of the United Service Journal will always be found open, not more to the history of the naval and military enterprises which uphold our foreign power, than to those peaceful projects which contribute to the wealth and commercial ascendancy of our common country, I wish in the following remarks, to exhibit the outline of an extensive project for marine railways, both in this island and the neighbouring European nations; thinking it probable that the world has yet obtained a glimpse only of the revolutionary wonders of the railway system,—an invention which is destined to change the civil, commercial, and political condition of every nation on the globe.

The proposition for the conveyance of vessels overland, contained in my former communication upon a land passage into Ireland, having been considered impracticable by several of the journals of the day, I first proceed to show that there is neither difficulty or novelty in raising vessels from the water; and it is apparent that when elevated to the level of the road, any weight, or the globe, may be drawn upon a railway. By the patent slip, vessels are already drawn from the water up the steepest banks, by horse-power to the ship-yards, three horses being described as equal to the draught of a frigate full mantled, and partially in ballast. By stationary steam-engines, and the patent slip, therefore, vessels of any tonnage whatever may be raised from the water; and the track of the railway being formed of the required width and strength of metal, it only remains to attach the locomotive engine, and proceed with the vessel and cradle. Or the descent to the harbour may be graduated for miles, and rendered imperceptible upon the railway, when locomotive-engines, or horses alone, will suffice for the conveyance of vessels from the sea to any distance inland. The employment

of hydrostatic pressure might be found an economical, speedy, and powerful method of elevating vessels; and equally convenient is the screw-dock, a machine lately introduced into the ports of the United States of America, for the purpose of raising vessels to copper and repair; an invention resorted to in consequence of the insufficiency of water for the formation of dry docks in that country, there not being the same rise and fall of tide in the harbours of America, that we have round the coasts of England. The American engineers have not only remedied this deficiency, but greatly surpassed our method; the vessel being elevated to a level with the street, and consequently in a more favourable position for effectually working at the bottom. The screw-dock is still a new and very imperfect machine, being worked by capstans and manual power; but an instance of its great capability is in the circumstance that a vessel of 250 tons burthen, recently arrived in the port of New York, in distress and leaky, and being placed upon the screw-dock, without disturbing the cargo, was raised, repaired, and again despatched to sea in a single tide. Similar machinery has for a century been employed by the Dutch at the Island of Curaçoa, for the transference of vessels from one dock to another; and it is certain that in very ancient times, shipping were conveyed across the isthmus of Corinth: it cannot, therefore, defy the all-conquering mechanical powers of the present age, to accomplish a work which is undoubtedly required to the full developement of the commercial advantages of the railway system.

I propose then to form, first, a connected line of marine railways, passing from the southern to the northern counties of the island, and branching to the east and to the west, connecting all our seas.

From Dover to London, at the Thames Tunnel, is the first division of the work; and here a marine railway will save the expensive, circuitous, and dangerous navigation of the Downs and the Thames. The distance is seventy-two miles; and a small steam-engine will convey a vessel of 200 tons to London in about six hours; and at a toll of one farthing per ton per mile, the cost of conveyance will amount to the sum of fifteen pounds, and the expense of the return passage to Dover, an additional sum of fifteen pounds; the whole, therefore, amounting to a charge of thirty pounds. That a toll of one farthing per ton per mile will be a remunerating rate upon this marine railway, is proved by these calculations. The average number of vessels annually entering the port of London, is considerably more than twenty thousand, exclusive of lighters, passage-boats, and small craft; and estimating these vesssels at an average burthen of 200 tons, and the toll levied upon each being 30*l.*, a revenue of 600,000*l.* will thus be derived from shipping alone; and the amount to be raised from the conveyance of passengers, mails, and military armaments, with all the local trade of the rich intervening counties of Kent and Surrey, will produce a total revenue of one million per annum. On the other hand, the present expense of sailing and returning from Dover to London, including pilotage, light-money, and all the oppressive and innumerable charges of the Thames, amounts to about 300*l.* for a vessel of 200 tons. The difference of victualing, wages, and interest upon the value of the vessel and cargo, for a period of seven days, usually occupied in sailing and returning from Dover to London, may be estimated at a further sum of about 50*l.*; and the vessel being conveyed no further than to warehouses in the neighbourhood of the Tunnel, whence railways for waggons may branch off to the various parts of Southwark, Westminster, and London: the present cost of porterage from the dock, and of the return cargo to the vessel, an average expense of 25*l.*, will be saved entirely when the vessel is conveyed direct to the warehouse of the merchant. It is therefore apparent, that this marine railway will create a saving of more than 1*l.* 10s. per ton, which upon 20,000 vessels of a burthen of 200 tons, amounts to a difference of three millions annually saved to the shipping interest; and therefore in the consequent diminution of the price of corn, coal, and all foreign articles of trade, the real result is a

perpetual saving of three millions per annum to the consuming population of the kingdom.

Great opposition will undoubtedly be made to any proposal for diverting the trade from the Thames; but as the work will contribute to alleviate the disadvantages of our inland trade, and to diminish the size of this impure place of corruption, monopoly, and unmanageable mobs, the project should be zealously encouraged by the Government.

This brings the railway to the Thames Tunnel, through country property, and avoiding the expensive streets of London. For the passage of vessels through the Tunnel, that work is required to be widened, deepened, and newly arched; its present height of eighteen feet by thirty-four wide, being insufficient for the passage of vessels with the main-mast standing; but in the present advanced condition of the Tunnel, these alterations may be executed with small comparative expense.

From the Tunnel, the railway may proceed northward in a direct line, through Caen Wood to Watford, and thence upon the proposed route through Buckinghamshire and the intervening counties to Birmingham, the marine railway, with a suspension railway above, being substituted for the present proposed quadruple track. The distance from Dover to Birmingham will thus be about 180 miles, and at the rate of one farthing per ton per mile, the cost of conveyance for vessels will be three shillings and sixpence per ton, the distance being accomplished in about fourteen hours. Upon the present system, the cost of conveyance by canal from Birmingham to London alone, is three pounds per ton; the cost of unloading, porterage, and re-shipment at London, with the dock-dues, commission, and interest upon the value of the merchandize detained many days when shipped upon the Thames, will amount to an additional sum of two pounds per ton; the entire saving by the marine railway being, therefore, almost five pounds per ton, or double the price of iron at its present average value. It therefore becomes apparent, that if under our present disadvantages from the inland situation of the iron district, we have still been able to supply all nations with hardware, under the new system of marine railways, we shall annihilate the whole metallic manufactures of the world. The railway will, moreover, produce an additional saving of five pounds per ton in the return carriage of all foreign imports of corn, sugar, provisions, and other commodities; the consequent reduced price of which to the operative classes, will indirectly facilitate the cheap production of manufactured goods; and the cost of transportation will now be so nearly annihilated by the railway system, that the iron, ore, timber, and raw commodities of the continental nations will now be brought to England, to be returned in the form of finished manufactures, as we at present import and return the cottons of America. This division of the railway will also bring the coal of Staffordshire and Warwickshire to London and all the southern counties. Fuel then may be sold at ten shillings per ton,—not one quarter of the present average price,—a reduction which will greatly mitigate the sufferings of the lower order in the south of England, where, with even the advantage of milder winters, it is undoubted that a stunted population is produced by a deficiency of winter firing.

From Birmingham the work proceeds northward to Manchester. The distance from Manchester to Dover will thus be about 240 miles; and the cost of conveyance for shipping at one farthing per ton per mile, will amount to five shillings per ton, vessels being conveyed the entire distance in a single day: consequently the whole European trade from the populous manufacturing districts of Lancashire, may thus be diverted from the port of Liverpool, from which the voyage to the east of Europe is long, expensive, and circuitous.

Being carried onwards to Carlisle, the work will at that point join the marine railway projected to Newcastle and the German Ocean, thus receiving the coal vessels of Northumberland, with the shipping from the eastern

coasts of England and Scotland, and from the Baltic and the ports of the north of Europe. From the northward, here will be received the entire trade of Ireland, by the marine railway from the Atlantic to Donaghadee, Portpatrick, and Carlisle, with the shipping from the west of Europe, the West Indies, and North and South America, for the cost of navigating the Irish Channel, with its long line of light-houses, pilotage, and circuitous and dangerous coasts, will be incomparably greater than the cost of conveyance from a port upon the Atlantic, by a marine railway, to the most inland districts of the kingdom. Thus, the cost of entering the port of Liverpool, including channel expenses, harbour dues, and porterage, is underrated at about one pound per ton, whereas upon the marine railway, vessels may be brought from the Atlantic to Manchester, a distance of 300 miles, at about seven shillings per ton; and even to London, a distance of 480 miles, the cost will amount to no more than ten shillings per ton, at one farthing per ton per mile. To this must be added the difference of time, insurance, and other expenses, for a period of twelve days, which is usually occupied in the circuitous navigation of the Channel; for to clear the extremity of the western coast of Ireland, is estimated at one-third part of the passage to America, whereas by a marine railway vessels may be conveyed from the Atlantic to the centre of the kingdom in a single day. Thus all this immense mass of trade may be diverted from the Irish Sea, being brought along marine railways in a more speedy, secure, and economical manner, to the saving of a vast amount of coal, corn, and other merchandize, now annually sunk and wasted in that very dangerous Channel.

Having thus brought this great stream of trade to Dover, I proceed to describe the foreign division of this work, commencing with a land communication from Dover to Calais, by a chain-bridge, a causeway, or a tunnel; for the central situation of this pass, striking the continent in the midst of the great trading countries of Europe, presents advantages so splendid, that to contend with nature at this point, is worthy of all the science, enterprise, and wealth of the English nation.

The soundings here are shallow to a degree extraordinary in so narrow a channel, carrying eight and ten, and for a short distance about seventeen fathoms, the average depth being under nine and a half fathoms. A chain-bridge may, therefore, be erected here; and though a very rapid tide flows in this part of the channel, it is not greater than the current of a full river, and by a judicious selection of spots for buttresses, the work may be executed without any extraordinary natural obstacle. The abutments may be raised upon foundations of stone, thrown in loose masses into the sea; for by the action and reaction of the tide, these will embed and acquire the consistency of solid masonry: as in the United States of America, the fortifications there termed rip-raps are thus constructed in the tideway, some of which, though without any other foundation, yet mounting many hundred guns. The iron-work for a chain-bridge, in the present reduced condition of that branch of our manufactures, may be obtained at an unusually small cost; and the expense of erecting the Menai Bridge, forms a certain ground of calculation for the cost of a similar undertaking from Dover to Calais.*

For a causeway there are great natural advantages here. At Dover the immensity of material contained in the cliffs, would probably suffice to carry a pass of a quarter of a mile in width over half the Channel; and the overflowing prisons of London will furnish the cheap labour of convicts to execute the work. Upon the French shore is a similar abundance of material in the cliffs of Calais, which are situated about one mile nearer than the harbour of Calais to the coast of England; and France, though a less populous kingdom than England, yet having no system of colonial transportation, is pos-

* Our sanguine projector has overlooked the necessity of a passage for the navigation up and down channel—an omission which, we fear, would lead to much risk of "Breaking the Line."—Ed.

sessed of a similar command of convict labour. In the harbour of Brest, the number of convicts at present employed is 2908, and the expense of clothing, victualling, and wages, is found to be about four shillings per week for each individual. Nor will the usual expense in the purchase of land for the site of railways be incurred for a road thus carried across the sea; therefore, with this concentration of advantages, the time, difficulty, and cost, of the construction of a causeway from Dover to Calais, becomes comparatively inconsiderable.

A tunnel may be formed with similar facility here, for the chalk of which the substratum is undoubtedly composed, is easy of excavation, and a saleable material. Its excavation may proceed simultaneously from the coasts of England and France; and in so shallow a situation, shafts may even be opened through the sea, and left permanently open, as hollow buttresses, to light and ventilate the work. A tunnel also possesses some other advantages, as its greater security in the event of war.

Arrived at Calais, we have the sites of two great marine railways. North, through Belgium, Holland, and the Hanse towns, to Hamburgh, and the Baltic; the extreme distance to that sea at Lubeck, being about 480 miles, and the cost of conveyance for shipping at one farthing per ton per mile will amount to ten shillings per ton. By this route we shall thus obtain the corn, cattle, and timber of Belgium, Holland, and the southern shores of the Baltic in a single day, and at a quarter of the present rate by sea; the same line forming, also, an outlet for our manufactured goods to the vast and populous markets of the east of Europe.

From Calais, another great line of marine railway may be laid to Paris, and through all France to the Mediterranean at Marseilles, the extreme distance being similarly 480 miles from Calais; and the toll at one farthing per ton per mile will amount to ten shillings per ton. The average rate of freight from England to the Mediterranean is about one pound ten shillings per ton, the passage being usually performed in fifteen days, whereas by this marine railway, vessels may be conveyed from Marseilles in less than forty-eight hours, thus cutting off a navigation of two thousand miles round the coast of Spain and through the straits of Gibraltar. Thus the whole trade of France to and from England will pass upon this line, with the entire commerce of England, Belgium, and Holland, to all parts of the Mediterranean, the Black Sea, and the Archipelago. The more important trade of Europe to the East Indies will also be conveyed through France to Marseilles; thence vessels launched upon the Mediterranean, may proceed to Alexandria, and by a marine pass to Suez and the Red Sea. Thus, steam voyages will then be made in a period of forty days to India, China, and New Holland, a change which will double our trade to all the eastern world, and carry our laws, language, and religion to those far regions, now lying in the dark shades of slavery, their miseries rendered by distance, unknown, unseen, and unrelieved. By this railway, the corn, wine, and silks of France, Spain, and Austrian Italy, may thus be brought into England in a period of two days; a corresponding cheap return of our manufactures of iron, cotton, and woollen goods, being made to all the south of Europe. Thus, the claret wines of France, under a reduced rate of duties, may be obtained by our operative classes at sixpence per quart, a great enjoyment in this damp climate, which will refine the character of our labouring population, diminish drunkenness, and save an incalculable annual waste of grain in this populous country, in malt liquor, spirits, and other unnatural and brutalizing drinks.

Over all these lines of marine railways, I propose to form suspension railways resting upon arches, and covering the main road beneath, for the conveyance of passengers, mails, and light merchandise, if the superior bulk of the shipping be found to obstruct the speed required for those purposes. This will create a considerable saving in the purchase of land for these undertakings; nor will steam-engines be required upon suspension railways,

where a speed of fifty miles an hour may be obtained by manual power alone. Nor will the passage of shipping prevent the use of waggons upon the main track, for the width of the road and the corresponding width of the waggons, where the weight is more concentrated and nearer to the engine, will be favourable circumstances, causing a great diminution of the requisite propelling power.

The whole of these works may be executed in a very few years, the land passage from Dover to Calais being undertaken by the respective governments of England and France, whilst the various divisions of the marine railways are more peculiarly fitted to be the object of one or more joint-stock companies. Their formation will afford most extensive employment to the labouring population of the kingdom, and a lucrative investment for many millions of our stagnant capital; and if upon the Manchester and Liverpool railway, the expenditure of one million of money has been justified by a remuneration of large interest and stock already doubled in value, it cannot be doubted that much benefit would result to the individual stockholders upon a line of marine railways, which will command the trade not of two towns, but of half the globe.

HENRY FAIRBAIRN.

DANGER AND DISCIPLINE—A NAVAL INCIDENT.

IN a late Number of the United Service Journal, I have read with great pleasure an interesting account of the meritorious and gallant conduct of Messrs. Otter and Elliott, of the Madagascar, and the excellent crew they commanded, when upset in a boat upon duty from their ship. It is those extraordinary incidents which most of all draw forth the energies and orderly habits of the officers and men of a well-disciplined ship of war.

Allow me to relate an anecdote of a somewhat similar nature which befell myself and a boat's crew, when second lieutenant of His Majesty's ship Diana, then commanded by the late Commodore Grant. That excellent officer, with the utmost kindness and indulgence both to officers and men, kept that ship in excellent order and discipline. It was in the summer of 1809, that I was sent from the Downs to Ramsgate to bring on board some seamen, who were there in a detained vessel, if I remember right. On board the barge were, myself, a young midshipman, and nine seamen. The wind was light and favourable, being off the land: we were carrying the usual sail in such cases in a lug-sailed boat, with the proper precaution of clear sheets and halliards. When crossing Sandwich Bay, or thereabouts, a squall came on so sudden and severe, that the boat was instantly upset before the sails could be lowered. My first order was to keep together, and near the boat, which was kept in equipoise on her beam ends five or six feet under water, by the sails acting against the hull and ballast, so that every now and then, between the seas, we could touch her with our toes. Never, in the finest weather or on the quarter-deck, was shown more voluntary or excellent discipline and behaviour, by keeping together, and occasionally assisting one another with the loan of a stretcher, or a couple of oars that were caught; they kept up their spirits, and were even cheerful in this most

hazardous situation. It continuing to blow fresh, with considerable sea and a strong tide, we were drifting fast out to sea; yet all maintained the same indomitable spirit, and more than common attention to me. One man said, "We must take care of you, Sir, or we are lost." The midshipman, Mr. Anderson, lost his hat; he swam round to me, and asked leave to try and regain it, remarking that it would be a convenience if we were picked up, and at any rate he should like to have it; he got it, and seemed quite happy. We had been suddenly missed by some look-out-men on Ramsgate pier, when two boats instantly put to sea to look for and try to save us. The first passed within a few hundred yards without seeing us. Providence, however, did not desert us in this most painful and anxious moment, but sent the other so directly to the spot, that she almost ran over us. The same deliberation and calm courage, marked their delivery from a state so perilous, by assisting me on board the first; then the midshipman; they were then soon taken up themselves, and landed at Ramsgate, where we met the utmost hospitality and kindness.

Thus, under Divine Providence, were *all saved* by the wonderful state of order maintained for nearly two hours in the water, under most discouraging circumstances—that of half a gale of wind, a strong ebb tide—the mortification of seeing what was supposed the only means of our preservation pass us by, and the decreasing physical strength of the whole party.

I have been in many scenes of death and danger, but if I was to be asked on what occasion I should fix my reputation for presence of mind, I should not hesitate to say it was on this; where I was enabled to exert authority and find obedience in such a situation, where instead of the heart-stirring sounds during, and the hope of glory after, a battle, and the something indescribable delight in it, no prospect was in our view but dying in the middle of the tide, a slow, perhaps painful, and, to those who knew not all the circumstances, inglorious death.

I wish my young and gallant friend, Mr. Anderson, was now alive, to recall the incident to his mind, and read this tribute to his early promise of fame. But alas, he met at length a watery grave, being lost in his Majesty's ship Delight, somewhere between the Cape of Good Hope and the Mauritius.

R. H. Barclay, Capt. R.N.

P.S. It will gratify the reader to be told, that although the boatmen would take nothing from me, they were liberally rewarded by the Admiralty, Lloyd's, and Capt. Grant.

R. H. B.

FOREIGN MISCELLANY.

FRANCE.

The *French* ARMY consists, at the present moment, of 412,520 effectives, inclusive of 276,000 *infantry*, 54,000 *cavalry*, 39,000 *artillery*, 8000 *engineers*, 14,000 *veterans*, and 16,000 *gens d'armes*. The maintenance of this force is estimated, in the French budget, at 250,475,000 francs or 10,019,000*l.* which shows an annual cost of somewhat more than twenty pounds per man. The expense of the whole NAVAL establishment in this year, estimated at 7,486,000 francs, or 299,440*l.* This sum is exclusive of the officers and men employed, whose numbers are 13,000, and annual cost to the State is set down at 368,600*l.* or 9,215,000 francs, which includes both pay and victualling.

There are at the present moment, two hundred *Lieutenant-Generals* on the French Army List; but a few such conflicts as those of Moscowa and Wagram, would pare down the host to a skeleton; for, in the former battle, no less than eight and forty fell, and in the latter as many as eighteen in three hours.

The *pay* and *maintenance* of the French army has just been voted at 207,072,000 francs, or 8,283,300*l.* for an establishment of two hundred thousand men.

The present number of *French Marshals* is fourteen, inclusive of Marshals Marmont and Bourmont; the latter of whom refuses to take the oath to Louis Philippe.

The general re-mount of the *French cavalry* is fixed at 4,743,000 francs, or 189,720*l.* and the equipment of the *artillery-train* at 7,740,000 francs, or 309,600*l.*

Pay of *field officers liable to active service**—fifty-eight Lieutenant-Generals, 27,840*l.*; ninety-eight Major-Generals, 29,760*l.*; eight Colonels 1333*l.*; twelve Lieutenant-Colonels, 1696*l.*; and eighteen Chefs de Bataillon, 2100*l.*

A Vice-Admiral receives, when employed on active service, a monthly allowance of 3291 francs, or about 130*l.*; a Rear-Admiral, 2425 francs, or about 98*l.*; and a Post-Captain *(capitaine de vaisseau)*, 1183 francs, or circa 48*l.*; but the *capitaine de frégate* only 970 francs, or 40*l.* The Lieutenant of a ship-of-the-line *(lieutenant de vaisseau)* receives no more than 264 francs 65 cents, or about 10*l.* 10*s.* a month. There are in the French service eighty-seven *Captains of ships-of-the-line* (which are to be reduced to sixty-six); 120 *Captains of frigates* (to be cut down to seventy); 450 *Lieutenants of ships-of-the-line;* and it is intended to raise the number of *Lieutenants of frigates* to 550, to whom may be added about 100 *officers in aid*, to be taken from the merchant-service. The number of *Midshipmen*, or *élèves*, is 300, of whom 200 are of the first, and 100 of the second class; this is independently of about 100 *volunteers*, who are employed on the same duties as the latter, and enjoy nearly the same rank.

The budget for the present year provides for the equipment, maintenance, and repair of thirty-five *two* and *three-deckers*, and eleven *frigates* of the first class, nine of the second, and twenty of the third. The minor vessels afloat are,

21	Sloops-of-war,	of 18	guns and upwards.
17	Brigs	ditto 20	guns.
4	Ditto	ditto 18	do.
8	Ditto	ditto 16	do.
16	Ditto for the service of despatches, &c.		

* Not employed or superannuated.

3 Ditto, or galleys, 10 to 12 guns.
8 Bomb-vessels.
6 Armed brigs *(cannonières-bricks)*.
59 Galleys, cutters, luggers, &c.
12 Steam-vessels.
16 Victualling, &c. sloops.
32 Transports or *gabares;* and
2 Yachts.

Making a total of *two hundred and seventy-nine* sail of every description; of which, however, on the 7th of December last, there were but *one hundred and forty* in a perfect, or advanced state of equipment, including three sail-of-the-line, eighteen frigates, thirteen sloops, and thirty-four brigs, besides seven steam-vessels.

A singular remark occurs in the course of an elaborate comparison, recently published by M. Jal, between the state of the French, English, and United States' Navies—"There is one point, in which the English possess an essential advantage; and that is, in respect to discipline. Our vessels," he observes, "will soon have none at all, if we continue to wink at the relaxation of discipline, which prevails among the crews. It must be candidly admitted, that a mistaken spirit of philanthropy has possessed itself of some of our legislators, and that the officer is at this moment denuded of all authority when he has to deal with the sailor's ill-conduct. * * * Without re-establishing strict discipline, and leaving its modifications in the officers' hands, the French Navy must be ruined."

HOLLAND.

Field-Marshal His Royal Highness the Prince of Orange, in company with Prince Frederick, his brother, witnessed, on the 15th of February last, a trial of the new flying-bridge, recently invented by an engineer in the Dutch service. It is of the shape of a waggon, rests upon rollers, and is drawn by six horses; it may be employed, as well by artillery as infantry, in crossing small rivers and other water communications, and is about twelve yards long, including two frames, which serve to connect it with either bank. The experiment was made at Middelrode, near Bois-le-duc, and, within fifteen minutes after the apparatus had been brought to the banks of the Aa, a battery of eight field-pieces was passed across it.

POLAND.

With a view to provide a maintenance for those privates of the disbanded army, who have no means of support, Prince Paskewitsch has directed, that 13,000 men should be employed on the roads, 600 on the construction of three bridges, and 1300 in the making of rafts in the Waywodeships of Cracow and Sandomir.

RUSSIA.

The corps of cadets at *St. Petersburgh* celebrated their hundredth anniversary on the 17th of February last. Field Marshal Count Münnich was the actual founder of this institution; for, it was in consequence of his representation to the Empress Anna of the necessity of creating a school for the education of efficient officers, that she signed an ukase, on the 29th July (10th August) 1731, directing the formation of such an establishment, under the denomination of the "Imperial Corps of Cadets," and with the requisite accommodation for one hundred and fifty Russian and fifty Esthonian and Livonian noblemen.

AUSTRIA.

A Veteran.—For length of service there is, we believe, no precedent which may compare with that of *John Chiossich*, who died, in his 117th year,

in the invalid asylum at Murano, near Venice. He was born at Vienna, on the 26th of December 1702, and, when in his eighth year, entered as a fifer into the Stahremberg regiment of infantry. His *début* in the field was as a private in the American war; he fought, under Charles VI. Emperor of Germany, against the Turkish armies in Hungary; in 1741 he served against Prussia, in the reign of Maria Theresa; in 1742 against the French troops in Bohemia; and in 1744 made the campaign of the Low Countries. At this period he quitted the Austrian service and enlisted under the banners of the republic of Venice, whom he served on several naval expeditions, particularly on that under the command of Gen. Emo, against Tunis. His career was closed, so far as regarded the "tug of war," by his admission into the invalid asylum at Murano in 1797, under which roof he died on the 22nd of May 1820. His length of active service was, therefore, eighty-seven years; and adding to these the three-and-twenty years during which he lived as a pensioner at Murano, he wore a uniform for *one hundred and ten years* of his existence! The fatigues and privations which he had undergone seem to have had no prejudicial effect on his constitution; to the last he was remarkable for the liveliness of his disposition, the unaffected simplicity of his manners, and his excellent moral deportment. His father died at the age of *one hundred and five*, and his paternal uncle lived to be *one hundred and seven*.

The Austrian *Landwehr* was instituted in the year 1808, when the Archduke Charles, with a view to create a new line of defence against the spoliations of the "*enfant gâté de la victoire*," established a corps of reserve, consisting of fifty-two thousand men, who should be called out for three weeks or a month's drilling every year, and, on the breaking out of hostilities, immediately admit of being drafted off into the several regiments of infantry, which were recruited by ballot in the provinces where that system prevailed. This corps of reserve gave the first idea of establishing the *Land-wehr* (land fencibles), which afterwards took so prominent a part in delivering Austria and Germany from the fangs of France. Its present strength is estimated at 470,000 men, and forms about three-fifths of the military force of the Austrian crown.

TURKEY.

In an order of the day, addressed by the Grand Signor, on the 20th of January last, to the troops whom he had despatched into Asia Minor, we observe the following passage:—"The official reports sent to us, which have been corroborated by travellers who have arrived from those parts, have brought to our knowledge that the regiments of the line ordered by us into Anatolia have distinguished themselves, on the route to their place of destination, by their good order, discipline, and peaceful deportment. This has afforded us much gratification, and is well deserving of our encomiums. We recommend them to the care of the Divine Providence, whose protection we implore on their behalf, and trust that, through their bravery and devotion, a speedy termination may crown operations, the result of which is of such high importance to our religion, the national interests, and the dignity of our crown."

UNITED STATES.

The following items appear in the report of the Secretary of the Treasury of the *United States*, for the year 1830, as laid before Congress on the 30th December last.

Military Service, including fortifications, transactions with the Indians, pay, equipment of the militia, and internal improvements, 6,752,688 doll. 66 cts. or 1,350,540*l*.

Naval Service, inclusive of repairs and augmentations, 3,239,428 d. 63 c. or 674,890*l*.

The expenditure of the first three quarters of 1831 amounted for *Military Services*, &c. to 5,649,017 d. 23 c. and for the *Naval Service*, &c. to 3,019,667 d. 85 c.

The Secretary for the War-department reports, that the state of the United States army is very satisfactory; though he complains of the daily *increase of desertions*, which he ascribes to the insufficiency of the punishments awarded, and the intemperate habits of the soldiery. In justification of his complaint, he stated, that in 1826 the number of deserters had been 636; in 1827, 848; in 1828, 820; in 1829, 1115; in 1830, 1251; and in 1831, 1450. The supply of muskets in the hands of the government is 465,000; the yearly number of them produced by the government works is 25,000; and there are 11,000 furnished by private manufacture at twelve dollars each. There are 625 field-pieces and 1165 cannon in the arsenals and fortified places; but, with the exception of six out of 344, they are *quite unfit for service!* It was proposed that 8148 pieces of artillery should be kept up in future for the supply of fortified points and the use of the army. The average price of each is 5 dollars 94 cts. (about 24*s.*) per hundred weight.

The Secretary of the Navy reported the naval force to consist of five frigates, eleven corvettes, and seven sloops in commission and at sea; but he did not enter into any detail of the general strength and amount of this branch of the United States Service. He recommended that steam-cannon should be adopted, and expressed an intention of applying for the requisite means of equipping two batteries, each of them consisting of twelve such cannon.

CHINA.

M. de Rienzi, who has been long resident in China, and has traversed a considerable portion of that vast empire, made it one of the chief objects of his inquiries to obtain and compare the numerous and minute statistical details, which are published both by the central and provincial governments. He has recently published some of the results of his investigations, from which the subsequent memoranda are borrowed.

Military and Naval forces of China.

Regular infantry	300,108
Irregular infantry	400,000
Regular cavalry	227,000
Irregular cavalry	273,000
Artillery (of a wretched description)	17,000
Attendant on the regular troops	30,000
Officers attached to ditto	6,892
Officers attached to the irregulars	5,201
Navy	32,440
	1,291,641

The *pay* of the soldiery is established on the following basis:—each private of infantry receives eight francs (say 6*s.* 8*d.*) and three measures of rice per month, and every trooper sixteen francs (13*s.* 4*d.*) per month and six measures of rice, besides forage and other articles which the inhabitants are bound to supply him. M. Rienzi states the distinct portions which the eighteen provinces of China contribute towards the *military expenditure*; the respective items form a total of 20,812,341 taels, or 867,200*l.* The *naval* expenditure is not given, but stated to be of uncertain amount.

REVIEWS AND CRITICAL NOTICES.

CAPT. HALL'S FRAGMENTS OF VOYAGES AND TRAVELS.*

A GRATIFYING tribute has recently been paid by a cotemporary of high authority to the growing proficiency of the "belligerent classes" in the use of the pen, now that the sword, of the use of which they have already shown themselves masters, is for a season sheathed. We may be pardoned the avowal of our pride on learning from such a quarter, as well as from others we are bound to esteem as judges in the lists of literature, that the bay as well as the laurel is awarded by their countrymen to the members of the United Service. *Tam Artibus quàm Armis* may serve the "belligerent" aspirant for literary honours as an apt motto and encouraging guerdon—especially in the absence of that *martial* "Order of Merit" to which the converse of the motto furnishes a just claim, but which the desperate necessities of the State still deny to its victorious defenders.

In the foremost rank of those officers who vindicate that capacity of mind and command of the pen which, avowedly, place Naval and Military writers on a par with the most successful authors of their country, stands Capt. Basil Hall. Long known and esteemed both as a writer and an officer, Capt. Hall's varied voyages and experience, from which a shrewd observation and well-judging habits have enabled him to extract due profit, have been turned to useful and honourable account; but in no instance with so much advantage to his profession and credit to himself as in the production now under our notice.

In the FIRST SERIES of Capt. Hall's "Fragments," reviewed in our Number for July last, we recognised a novel plan, entitled to high commendation, and promising, if successfully pursued, to produce a fund of mingled entertainment and instruction. Our opinions and expectation are fully confirmed by the quality and arrangement of the SECOND SERIES.

In the design of this work, the Author has adopted an unassuming mode of imparting his experience to the junior members of the Service, and of supplying his peers and cotemporaries with a manual abounding in agreeable or practical associations, both technical and general. He not only blends his matter, grave and gay, with a view to abstract variety, but so collocates and confronts his *miscellanea*, that they shall relieve or illustrate each other. His "Fragments" form, in fact, a succession of lights and shades, without any apparent effort to produce that effect. The tendency of the whole is to instill sound instruction, where needed, in the most entertaining guise, by a series of instances or experiences all coming home to the professional bosom. If the apologue, in its fabulous sense, be an impressive and attractive vehicle of wisdom, still more effective must that medium become when its basis is reality.

We have never sat in judgment upon volumes from which it is so difficult to select extracts within suitable bounds—each chapter constituting an Essay or a Tale complete and closely knit in itself, and independent of the general Series. The opening chapter, on "Taking a line in the Service," is judiciously placed, and of sterling texture. We would gladly quote it, did our limits permit. This paper contains a merited eulogy upon the late Capt. Henry Foster, and an anecdote of that lamented officer, which we have already introduced at the close of our Review of the former Series.

The Sketches of Ireland and Irish society which follow, are drawn with obvious fidelity, and in a style of quaint and quiet humour, for which we had hardly given the sober-minded writer credit.

---

* Fragments of Voyages and Travels. By Capt. Basil Hall, R.N. Second Series. 3 Volumes.

He sails for India in "the old Volage," and thinks for himself upon that as upon every other occasion.

"Oh the joy! the relief unspeakable! of feeling one's self fairly under weigh, and of seeing the white cliffs of Old England sink fast in the north-eastern horizon right to windward! Let the concocters of romances and other imaginary tales say what they please of the joys of returning home; give me the happiness of a good departure, and a boundless world of untried enjoyments ahead. If a man be out of debt and out of love, or only moderately involved in either of these delicate predicaments; if he have youth and health and tolerable prospects, a good ship under his foot, a good officer above him, and good messmates to serve with, why need he wear and tear his feelings about those he leaves behind? Or rather, why need he grieve to part from those who are better pleased to see him vigorously doing his duty, than idling in other people's way at home? Or wherefore should he sigh to leave those enjoyments in which he cannot honourably participate till he has earned his title to them by hardy service?

"On the other hand, who is there so insensible as not to feel the deepest apprehension—very often, as I know by sad experience, almost devoid of a single drop of pleasure—on returning from a long and distant voyage? How can he tell in what condition he will now find the friends from whom he parted so long ago, and of whom he may, perhaps, not have heard a word for many a long season of anxiety? Is it not too probable that his busy fancy will conjure up many more images of death and sickness, of losses and sorrows, than it can paint pictures of health, good fortune, and happiness? And will it ever happen, if the interval of absence have been long, that some of these gloomy forebodings will not be realized? May it not prove but too often the case, that those whom, from being the dearest to us, we had ingeniously and fondly exempted from the fatal doom, are its first victims? Indeed, I have on these occasions been grieved and irritated at myself for canvassing beforehand, in my own mind, and in spite of every effort to change the current of my thoughts, which of all the friends in whom I was interested, I could consent to lose with the least regret! And when the pile of accumulated letters is first placed in our hands after a voyage, with what sickening eagerness do we not turn from the superscription to discover the colour of the seal?"

The following traits, and the author's comments, are respectively characteristic.

"There is one signal instance on record in which a fleet of East India Company's ships, unassisted by any professed men-of-war, actually beat off a French squadron of very powerful vessels. These striking incidents, peeping out from time to time, show what is called the true blood of the animal, and are extremely valuable, from proving how essential it is that an officer in command should 'Never say die while there is a shot in the locker!'—a pithy old phrase, which will apply to many situations in life, civil as well as military. Had the gallant and judicious East India commander alluded to, Sir Nathaniel Dance, cried out 'I die!' when the French Admiral Linois and his squadron, consisting of the Marengo, a line-of-battle ship of 84 guns, and the Belle Poule and Semillante frigates, each of 44, bore down on the China fleet, not less than six millions of English property, and some of the noblest trading ships that float on the ocean, must have been carried into the Isle of France.

"This memorable affair took place near Pulo Aor, in the China seas, and by a very interesting, and no doubt useful coincidence, on the 14th of February 1804, the seventh anniversary of the glorious action off Cape St. Vincent. Had the enemy only known the real force of his opponents, which he most certainly ought to have found out before he quitted them, the bold front these ships put forward might indeed have served them nothing. A less resolute man than Captain Dance might have said, this good fortune was hardly to be calculated upon; but it is the duty of a commander, at all times and under all circumstances, to afford himself every possible chance, and never to give up while there is one of these chances left.

"A useful chapter in naval history and tactics could be written on the defence of convoys, by which it might, perhaps, be made manifest, that a determined bearing, accompanied by a certain degree of force, and a vigorous resolution to exert that force to the utmost, would, in most cases, save the greater part of the convoy,

even against powerful odds. In the well-known instance of the sacrifice of his ship, in a contest in which he was from the first sure to be overpowered, Captain Richard Budd Vincent gained sufficient time for most of his flock of merchant ships to escape.

"This gallant officer, in February 1805, in the Arrow, of 18 twenty-four pounders, ably supported by Capt. Arthur Farquhar, in the Acheron bomb, carrying not half that number, actually engaged two large French frigates, mounting in all 90 guns and 1300 men, while the English force was only 26 guns and 90 men. The damage and delay caused to the enemy by this spirited resistance, enabled the convoy to disperse, and all to get off but three out of thirty-two. The English ships did not strike till they were so much cut up, that one sunk immediately afterwards, and the other was burned by the captors as useless."

News from home, celebrated by "three jolly huzzas" for the fall of Badajoz and 4000 men, puts us in spirits for some sound nautical and philosophical reflections, and an elaborate discussion, or rather Essay, on "The Trade Winds," which may be studied with especial profit by young naval officers.

Capt. Hall omits no opportunity of inculcating a discriminating consideration for the comforts and peculiar temperament of British sailors—and of illustrating by examples the various means by which an officer of sense and zeal may succeed in *managing* that unique species of the human animal without a frequent recurrence to punishment—of which more hereafter. After a humorous description of the discomforts of a salt-water-scrubbed shirt, the author continues—

"There are few greater favours of the minor kind which a considerate captain may bestow on his crew, than giving them, whenever he possibly can, at least as much fresh water as will serve to carry off the abominable salt from their clothes, after they have first been well scoured in the water of the ocean. Even this small allowance is a great comfort on those occasions, when a sufficient quantity cannot be allowed for performing the whole operation of washing from first to last. By a judicious management of the ship's regular stock, and, above all, by losing no opportunity of catching rain water, either during these tropical showers, or upon ordinary occasions of wet weather, an officer of any activity, who really possesses a good feeling towards his people, need seldom be without the means of giving to each man of his crew, a gallon twice a week during the longest voyage.

"It was from an old and excellent officer I first learned, that by proper and constant care this indulgence might almost always be granted. It is not easy, I freely admit, at all times, and in all climates, to keep a supply of washing-water on board; and under most circumstances, it certainly requires more personal exertion than those persons are aware of, who have not given it their attention. But I feel persuaded that there does not exist an officer in the navy who would not cheerfully take even a great deal more trouble, if once made fully sensible of the unspeakable comfort which this very reasonable indulgence affords to the men under his care. To those who hold the doctrine that sailors are by their nature ungrateful, and that it is useless to grant them advantages which are not absolutely necessary, these recommendations will appear trivial and absurd. But, I trust, the prevalence of such unworthy sentiments in the navy is becoming less and less every day. Officers are now generally pretty well aware, that the alleged ingratitude of their men belongs fully more to unreasonable expectations on their own part, than to any want of feeling on that of their crew. A captain ought to do what is right and kind, simply because it is right and kind; and his conduct in this respect should not be influenced by the manner in which it is received; at all events, he may be certain, that if his favours be not well received, the fault lies in his manner of giving them. Sailors have the most acute penetration possible on these occasions, and if the captain be influenced by any petty motives of selfishness, or be prompted by any trashy desire to gain a flimsy popularity—in short, if his conduct be regulated by any wish except that of doing his duty uniformly and kindly, the Johnnies will see through it all, and either laugh at him or hate him, or both.

"The art of granting a favour gracefully and usefully is one of far greater difficulty than is generally supposed; and as the command of a man-of-war is a grand

school for its study, most truly happy shall I be if what I have said here or elsewhere, shall induce a single brother-officer to turn his attention more earnestly than before to the domestic comforts of his people, one of the most delightful, and certainly one of the most useful branches of the arduous duties of a commander."

While upon the foregoing subject, we are tempted to revert to a chapter in the First Series of these "Fragments," entitled "Diversities of Discipline," for the purpose of enforcing its views by a practical illustration. In that paper, Capt. Hall contrasts the conduct of two of his captains, one of whom adopted the plan of finding as much fault as he could—on principle; while the other, acting equally on principle, looked out for objects which he could commend. The habit of one, in short, was to praise, that of the other to censure. We need not here enlarge on this topic; nor need we confine the instruction to ships or regiments. Fathers of families, heads of schools, and every other person who has numerous dependants, will find their advantage in laying these maxims to heart, and imparting their spirit to all their actions. At present, we shall merely mention, that we know of one regiment in which the adjutant, struck by the force of Capt. Hall's reasoning in the chapter alluded to, (on "Diversities of Discipline,") resolved to adopt the plan of seeking for objects of commendation rather than of blame. At the end of six weeks, the Serjeant-major, with whom he had occasion to speak on some point of discipline, remarked to the Adjutant that he appeared to have altered his system of late. "The men, Sir," he continued, "are greatly pleased with this change—they work more cheerfully—they are more obedient and attentive than formerly—and they are every one more pleased with their officers than they used to be." The Adjutant smiled, and made some allusion to six men who had recently got into trouble, and asked if the Serjeant included them. "Yes, I do, Sir," he added, "as you passed those men yesterday, you made a remark on something they were doing *right*, and took no notice of their misconduct last week. The fellows have been heard to say how sorry they were to have displeased you—and I can see they are so much gratified by your favourable notice, that they may now be completely depended upon. The men, Sir," continued the chief of the Non-Coms, "love to be commended when they do right, though all the time they may be doing no more than their duty."

The chapter headed "A Man overboard," is alike interesting and instructive. In such a crisis there is usually much confusion on board, for which Capt. Hall, not contenting himself with simply stating and decrying the fact, suggests, according to his custom, a regulated remedy.

There is truth and sagacity in the following observations:—

"There can be little doubt that the pain of executing laborious and disagreeable duties, is often materially lessened by their strictly periodical recurrence; for in time their nature and duration come to be so correctly measured and allowed for, that the joys of the leisure moments which intervene are always greatly enhanced. By a similar and very beautiful, I had almost said ingenious arrangement of our nature, it happens that the innocent pleasures of life, so far from palling by regularity, are actually much increased by it. I have frequently remarked with surprise, the intense interest with which the sailors, like children, returned day after day exactly to the same amusement. On the other hand, I have seldom failed to observe how exceedingly they were put out of their way by losing indulgences, apparently of the most trivial kind, but to which they had become habituated.

"People often fancy that, because the life of a seaman is one of constant change of place and occupation, he cannot fall into any regularity of habits; but on board a man-of-war it is really quite the reverse. He becomes there so much the creature of habit, that by a little management, he may be moulded to almost any purpose. There is no man more docile than Jack, I might say no child; but then the hand that guides him must be tempered by discretion, by kindness, and, above all, by uniformity, or, as it is called afloat, by system. There may be bad systems as well as good ones; but I am half inclined to say, that even the worst system, if

strictly adhered to, is better than the wretched uncertainty of purpose which clings to ill-regulated and vacillating discipline, though every single act may be dictated by goodwill and the sincerest wish to do right."

The whole chapters entitled "Sunday on Board" and "The Ship Church," may be regarded as excellent institutes for the occasion. Sir Samuel Hood, from old recollections, is too great a favourite with us to suffer our omission of a well-told trait, in which he figures. In the last volume ample justice is done to that excellent man and distinguished officer.

"I remember once, on the beach of Madras, witnessing an amusing scene between Sir Samuel Hood, then commander-in-chief in India, and the newly-promoted boatswain of a sloop-of-war belonging to the squadron. The Admiral, who was one of the bravest, and kindest, and truest-hearted seamen that ever trod a ship's decks, was a sworn foe to all trickery in dress-work. The eye of the veteran officer was directed earnestly towards the yeast of waves, which in immense double rows of surf fringe and guard the whole of that flat coast. He was watching the progress of a Massullah boat, alternately lost in the foam, and raised in very uncertain balance across the swell, which, though just on the break, brought her swiftly towards the shore. He felt more anxious than usual about the fate of this particular boat, from having ordered on shore the person alluded to, with whom he wished to have some conversation previous to their parting company. This boatswain was a young man, who had been for some years a follower of the Admiral in different ships, and to whom he had just given a warrant. The poor fellow, unexpectedly promoted from before the mast to the rank of an officer, was trigged up in his newly bought, but marvellously ill-cut uniform, shining like a dollar, and making its wearer, who for the first time in his life had put on a long coat, feel not a little awkward.

"As soon as the boat was partly driven up the beach by the surf, and partly dragged beyond the dash of the breakers by the crowd on shore, this happiest of warrant-officers leaped out on the sand, and seeing the Admiral above him, standing on the crest of the natural glacis which lines the shore, he took off his hat, smoothed down the hair on his forehead, sailor fashion, and stood uncovered, in spite of the roasting sun flaming in the zenith.

"The Admiral, of course, made a motion with his hand for the boatswain to put his hat on; but the other, not perceiving the signal, stood stock still.

"'I say, put on your hat!' called the commander-in-chief, in a tone which made the newly-created warrant start. In his agitation he shook a bunch of well-trimmed ringlets a little on one side, and betrayed to the flashing eyes of the Admiral a pair of small, round, silver ear-rings, the parting gift, doubtless, of some favoured and favouring 'Poll or Bess' of dear, old, blackguard Point Beach, the very ninth heaven of all light-hearted sailors. Be this as it may, the Admiral, first stepping on one side, and then holding his head forward, as if to re-establish the doubting evidence of his horrified senses, and forcibly keeping down the astonished seaman's hat with his hand, roared out,

"'Who the devil are you?'

"'John Marline, Sir!' replied the bewildered boatswain, beginning to suspect the scrape he had got himself into.

"'Oh!' cried the flag-officer, with a scornful laugh. 'Oh! I beg your pardon; I took you for a Portuguese.'

"'No, Sir!' instinctively faltered out the other, seeing the Admiral expected some reply.

"'No! Then if you are not a foreigner, why do you hoist false colours? What business has an English sailor with these d—d machines in his ears?'

"'I don't know, Sir,' said poor Marline. 'I put them in only this morning when I rigged myself in my new togs, to answer the signal on shore.'

"'Then,' said Sir Samuel, softened by the contrite look of his old shipmate, and having got rid of the greater portion of his bile by the first explosion, 'you will now proceed to unrig yourself of this top hamper as fast as you can; pitch them into the surf, if you like, but never, as you respect the warrant in your pocket, let me see you in that disguise again.'"

The chatter of "Sailor's Pets" is a capital relief to the sound of "the

church-going bell." The gambols of men and monkies, and the loves of sailors for those frisky though fractious favourites, are inimitably storied in these pages. Who else but Capt. Hall would have deliberately included a monkey in his means of discipline, and courted obedience by introducing so grotesque an intercessor to his crew? Yet "The Schoolmaster," steering by the compass of modern philosophy, could hardly counsel a truer course. Our Captain, also a philosopher in his way, but of an original school, propounds as follows of our fellow-creature "in the next degree."

"If a good monkey be allowed to run about the ship, I defy any one to continue long in a bad humour. Jacko is an overmatch for the demon of idleness, at least if light hearts and innocent diversions be weapons against which he cannot long contend. Be this as it may, I make a rule of entering a monkey as speedily as possible after hoisting my pendant; and if a reform takes place in the table of ratings, I would recommend a corner for the 'ship's monkey,' which should be borne on the books for 'full allowance of victuals,' excepting only the grog, for I have observed that a small quantity of tipple very soon upsets him; and although there are few things in nature more ridiculous than a monkey half-seas over, yet the reasons against permitting such pranks are obvious and numerous.

"It requires some decision on the part of the captain to carry through a point of this importance, and fairly to establish Jacko on board. The first-lieutenant, who is, or ought to be, a sort of demi-god afloat, generally sets his face against all pets, and swears vengeance against the whole tribe of parrots, squirrels, rabbits, pigeons, mongooses, dogs, monkeys, cats, and, I am ashamed to say, he occasionally extends his anathemas even to lady passengers! Supposing, however, that the captain has the authority and strength of mind enough to establish a monkey on board, the rogue will not have been ten minutes 'entered' before he sets to work at some mischief; for he is the only true known instance of perpetual motion.

"When Lord Melville, then First Lord of the Admiralty, to my great surprise and delight, put into my hands a commission for a ship going to the South American station, a quarter of the world I had long desired to visit, my first thought was, 'Where now shall I manage to find a merry rascal of a monkey?' Of course, I did not give audible expression to this thought in the First Lord's room; but, on coming down stairs, had a talk about it in the hall with my friend, Mr. Nutland, who laughed, and said,

"'Why, Sir, you may buy a wilderness of monkeys at Exeter 'Change.'

"'True! true!' and off I hurried in a cab, or more probably in a chariot, for this was some years before the glorious era of cabs. Mr. Cross not only agreed to spare me one of his choicest and funniest animals, but readily offered his help to convey him to the ship, and thus removed a difficulty which had troubled me not a little as I rattled along the Strand. The idea of taking a monkey in a post-chaise, even had I been travelling in that magnificent style, was not very agreeable; and it was quite clear, that either as an outside or an inside passenger in a stage-coach, the tricks of master Jacko would soon have got himself and his owner into a scrape with the other passengers. I mentioned my dilemma to Mr. Cross.

"'Lord, Sir!' said he, 'there is not an animal in the whole world so wild or fierce that we can't carry about as innocent as a lamb; only trust to me, Sir, and your monkey shall be delivered on board your ship in Portsmouth harbour, as safely as if he were your best chronometer going down by mail in charge of the master.'

"I had some curiosity to see how this purpose was to be accomplished, and returned again some days afterwards to be present at the ceremony of removal. My chattering purchase was thrust, not without many violent struggles and horrible grins, fairly into a deal box, and nailed down. A number of holes had been bored in the top and sides, not large enough for our gentleman to poke his paw through, but sufficient to furnish him with air, and enable him to discover what was going on in the external world. In this predicament he looked about as miserable as possible, even at home amongst his kith and kindred of the ancient menageric at Exeter 'Change, now, alas! demolished. When his box or cage was hoisted on the top of the Rocket, that fastest and safest of stage-coaches, poor St. Jago, as the sailors called him afterwards, was in such an agony of terror, that I half repented of my cruelty in forcing him to emigrate.

"Off he went, however, for the coast; and being left without provisions or water, except a few nuts, he was in a famous condition for his breakfast next morning, when the waterman ferried him off from Common Hard to the hulk on board which the officers had just assembled. As the ship had been only two or three days in commission, few seamen had as yet entered; but shortly afterwards they came on board in sufficient numbers; and I have sometimes ascribed the facility with which we got the ship manned not a little to the attractive agency of the diverting vagabond recently come from town, the fame of whose tricks soon extended over Portsea. He certainly was the most amusing fellow on board, but also the most mischievous; and, I fairly grant, as such he became at times a real nuisance.

"It was amusing enough to observe, that all the while he was committing any piece of mischief, he appeared not only to be under the fullest consciousness of guilt, but living under the perfect certainty that he was earning a good sound drubbing for his pains. Still the pleasure of doing wrong was so strong and habitual within him, that he seemed utterly incapable of resisting the temptation whenever it fell in his way. Whenever occupied in these misdeeds, he continued alternately chattering with terror, and screaming with delight at his own ingenuity, till the enraged owner of the property burst in upon him, hardly more angry with Jacko than with his malicious messmates, who, instead of preventing, rather encouraged the pillage."

Of the island of Johanna, on which the author bestows a chapter, we have given an account in this Journal, corresponding in its principal and most amusing details with that of Capt. Hall.

We had proposed to analyse in our present notice the author's remarks on Naval Punishments—but we find that we have already exhausted nearly all the space we can devote to the "Fragments." As, however, the subject is of deep concern to the service, and is treated with great care and consideration by the writer, we shall give the chapter entire in our next Number.

The scene shifts to India, of which the author's sketches are given with his wonted verisimilitude and vigour. The gallant corps of marines, or, as they are aptly termed, The Globe Rangers, are noticed in becoming terms: a well-earned tribute is also paid to the energy of character and valuable services of Sir Josias Rowley, whose conduct when commanding a squadron in the Indian seas is here placed in a prominent light. But we must close these excellent and entertaining volumes, looking forward to equal gratification in making acquaintance with their kindred yet unborn.

The style of these "Fragments" is marked by a vigorous simplicity and fitness, as their matter is distinguished by sense and propriety. The technical diction is characteristic, and happily though sparingly applied, while, with a curious felicity, the author contrives to imbue the tritest topic with a character of novelty and interest. Capt. Hall reasons upon things *ab initio*, and illustrates his precepts by his practice, pressing anecdote and episode into his service, without losing his way in digression. He is always in earnest, and we follow in his wake "with a will." While he appears but to describe and recommend, his earnest and palpable inductions may well pass for precedents, and all but established rules under the given circumstances. He inculcates no principles which are not honourable and benevolent—no line of conduct which may not conduce to the good of the service and individual distinction. We cannot imagine an officer more creditably or appropriately employed at a season of peace, or rather in the absence of declared war, than upon objects such as those which Capt. Hall so successfully prosecutes, and evidently in a spirit so far above the mere mercenary process of book-making. The legitimate reward awaits him, for we are not acquainted with any production of the "belligerent classes" more calculated than the "Fragments," to exercise a beneficial and grateful influence upon those to whom they are especially addressed.

1. *Description of a new method of constructing* BEDS *and* COINS *for Naval Guns. By Henry Chatfield, &c. &c.*—We are glad to see the attention of Mr. Chatfield directed towards the paramount object of Naval Gunnery, because we have seen sufficient of his works to have confidence in his talents.

It is well known that ships' ports are calculated for the guns being elevated to nine degrees, and depressed to seven; thus leaving a vertical arc of sixteen degrees at the option of the gunner; but it is also well known that the bed and quoin, as hitherto constructed, do not afford the breech of the gun equal support through all the varieties of elevation or depression comprised within that arc. To remedy this defect, and introduce greater precision, are the objects of this pamphlet, and we are happy in stating our conviction, that the writer has made an improvement, where improvement has been too little looked for; and has shown that the unscientific construction even of so simple a machine as a quoin, may prove a serious defect in system, and of some moment in actual warfare. In establishing the principles of the motion to which naval ordnance is subject, the author again urges the necessity of a pendulum with a graduated arc, to show the angle to which a vessel heels, and thereby regulate the evolutions for striking an object. Of the ruinous waste attending the neglect of properly pointing guns, he relates a palpable instance; and which is too much in point to be omitted. When the Hon. Capt. Duncan commanded the Porcupine, of twenty-four guns, in the Archipelago, he gave chase to a vessel, which proved to be an American merchant-man. While hailing her, and while the two ships were almost touching each other, a gun on board the man-of-war went off by accident, and a whole double-shotted broadside followed! Capt. Duncan naturally feared the poor neutral would be cut to pieces, but to his surprise and gratification found that she had entirely escaped the dose. This was a valuable hint to that skilful officer, and the known efficiency to which the Porcupine, the Mercury, and the Imperieuse, arrived under his command, proved that the lesson was not thrown away.

To evince the necessity of a stricter attention to precision in pointing guns in naval warfare, Mr. Chatfield brings forward some excellent arguments; from which, in order to give them greater circulation amongst young officers, we will make an extract.

"As the *distance* of an object, and the *inclined position* of the ship from which a gun is fired, alone govern the vertical evolutions of a piece of ordnance, it remains to inquire, whether a ship often undergoes any rapid changes of lateral position, and whether those changes are subject to a law of variation which is understood.

"It is important that we should dwell a little upon this point, because the inclination of a ship is the *variable* part of the conditions of firing within point-blank range, or at a given distance, and therefore involves a most essential question in marine gunnery; and further, because it has been asserted upon high authority, that 'it is not of any material importance whether the coin be adjusted or not; neither can any disappointment arise from any alteration that may take place in the position of the coin in firing.'

"With deference to this opinion, it is submitted that nothing can be worse than a series of guns so immethodically supported at the breech, that if the whole were discharged simultaneously, no two of them would carry a shot the same horizontal distance: or, if the rolling of the ship be made the means of giving the proper elevation of the guns, no two of them could be fired at the same instant.

"When a vessel rolls through a given arc, the successive degrees are performed in unequal intervals of time, the motion not being uniform; and the action of rolling is so far analogous to the vibrations of a pendulum, that the velocity may be considered greatest in the middle of the arc, and least towards the extremities. It is obvious too, that at the extremes of oscillation, there is a temporary suspension of motion varying in duration according to external circumstances. Now this variation of velocity is far from being a mere theoretical difference, adduced for the sake of refining the argument or supporting a particular opinion; but it is an essential and practical alteration of velocity which is sensibly felt on board every

ship, and may be as certainly calculated upon as the return of the ship to any of her former positions. This being the case, it follows that if it were intended to adjust a gun upon the plan of 'watching the opportunity of firing,' the most correct system would be to study those positions of the ship which afford the best means of taking a deliberate aim: and by the same rule, to avoid that position which is accompanied with the greatest rapidity and movement.

"Admitting the truth of this argument, it *is* of 'material importance' how the coin is adjusted. It is material as regards the facility of firing any gun taken separately; it is also material in point of *time* (in the aggregate), a slow motion partaking more of the character of permanency than a comparatively quick movement; and it is material in the great object of rendering a battery uniformly and simultaneously destructive by the concurrent discharge of the artillery. There is another advantage too, in connexion with the judicious adjustment of a coin, which ought to be appreciated; and that is, the means it affords of giving the true pointing of the guns in anticipation, or before the object to be fired at meets the eye; which may be done without being able to see the horizon, and is as easily effected in a fog, in smoke, or in the dark, as at any other time.

"It cannot for an instant be doubted, that there are many conditions under which we may encounter an adversary, when it would be a most important thing to be prepared for firing, by an approximate adjustment of the coin. In passing quickly under the stern of an enemy—in crossing his bows—in meeting him on opposite tacks—in coming up with him—in waiting his approach, &c. it is unquestionably of great consideration that no unnecessary delay take place. Now it is manifest, that if a ship be under sail, (which she must be, to go through the supposed evolutions,) she will be deflected from an upright position in proportion to the quantity of canvass she carries; and it is also evident, that the more sail she bears, the better will she be able to choose her situation, at the same time that she will be less liable to unsteadiness from the undulations of the sea. But the direct *velocity* of a ship requires proportionate promptitude in firing, when passing an object of attack; if therefore the ship's inclination be carefully observed by an instrument on board for that purpose, it would furnish such information relative to the proper adjustment of the coin, that the utmost *precision* and *celerity* of firing would be insured, at a moment when there may be but little latitude for watching the roll of the ship. 'It is this *instantaneous aim*,' says Sir W. Congreve, 'that we are in search of for a naval sight.' Sir W. Congreve's sight is certainly a valuable invention, and will at any instant prove whether a gun is correctly pointed; but it is strange that the scientific General did not attach some importance to the adjustment of the coin, instead of trusting to the motion of the ship to give every gun, in turn, its true elevation. The intervals between the times of firing must, for this reason, become as varied as the positions of the coins are promiscuous; and the conditions of taking aim may be favourable, or they may not; but whichever way it may happen, it will be purely accidental. The coin should give the *level* of the gun, and the sight would give the *aim*. The coin would give the *level* of the gun with mathematical certainty, if the ship were quite steady; but as that cannot be the case in actual practice, it is, critically speaking, only an approximate operation to level the guns with the coins, and it therefore becomes necessary on that account to correct the deviations by the eye. Hence, 'the importance of some instrument for securing the level, as well as the aim of naval ordnance: and if both be made to co-operate, the art of marine gunnery will attain nearer to perfection than it possibly can so long as either consideration is neglected.'"

The new quoin is proposed to be two feet long, and two inches and a half at the thinnest part when lying flat, taking care that the width at the thin end shall be rather less than the greatest thickness when lying flat; and that the width shall go on increasing towards the thick end, so that it may act as a wedge even when placed edgeways. The two positions therefore afford a continued rise of three feet in length, allowing three spare inches at each end. The quoin is graduated, and so is the bed, showing how far the former is to be pushed in, according to the desired depression of the gun. The bed is furnished with two side cheeks, just leaving room for the admission of the broadest part of the quoin when lying flat. The height

of the cheeks is such as to make the bed suit the windward guns when reversed.

Several ships have been furnished with some of these new quoins and beds, and their report may be shortly expected.

2. *Reflections on the state of British* NAVAL CONSTRUCTION, *in* 1832. *By Henry Chatfield, &c. &c.*—This is a pamphlet upon one of the most important objects of our national polity, and is written with equal temper and talent. We will submit the paragraphs with which the author opens:—

"The proceedings of the last few years, have evinced a great desire on the part of Government to improve the system of naval construction in this country; and if we may judge from circumstances, it is not too much to assume that a similar feeling still continues in the higher departments. In other words, the imperfect state of the theory of English naval architecture has, for some time, been plainly seen and openly avowed.

"If it were not so, how is it that so many projectors in naval science have been permitted to construct ships for the Royal Navy? Had it been with a view to settle some disputed points, or to discover some new facts, as a means of supplying additional data to principles already established, we might be wrong in assuming that there has been a want of confidence in our theoretical resources; but the experiments that have been gone into, had nothing of this character about them. If particular objects had been sought after, there would have been a close conference, and an unreserved communication, between the whole of the constructors; first principles would have been acquiesced in, and consecutive deductions admitted, and all would have given their attention to the accomplishment of the same object—the *extension* of naval science. But how different was the fact! There was a competition of entire systems, and, consequently, a division of interests; and the termination, as might naturally be imagined, had ended in a very inconclusive triumph of individual merit (on which opinions are very various) without developing a single novel truth.

"Without venturing an opinion, or intending to offer the most remote insinuation, as to the relative merits of the constructions which have been put forth by modern competitors in ship-building, it will be our endeavour to show that the *present habits of construction* are a sufficient reason why those productions could not be made extensively useful; and it is from a belief that this opinion may be fully substantiated—that the remedy is perfectly practicable—and that it will be found in the following remarks, that the discussion of the subject is now engaged in.

"It is not necessary to the argument which it is propose1 to adopt, to know whether Capt. Hayes can build better ships than Capt. Symonds, or whether Mr. Santé (the late eminent yacht-builder) has proved himself to be a superior constructor to either, or both of them: nor is it at all material to the question, whether the above projectors have, or have not, planned better vessels than those designed by the Surveyors of the Navy, and by Professor Inman. We will not therefore, anxiously ask, how the ships have respectively behaved—for it would only operate to embarrass us in our decisions upon the general question. The more simple way of proceeding will be, to put a few direct interrogatories, like the following, viz.—What has science been doing all this time? Can we with our present means, take the drawings of several ships, and point out, with any degree of confidence, their comparative excellences or inferiorities? Are we habituated to do so?—or, are we too conscious of the poverty of our own resources to attempt it?

"The best reply to these questions is the plain truth—that the ships belonging to the experimental squadrons did not undergo any kind of analysis, or comparison, of their peculiar properties; and the tendencies of their characteristic features were never scientifically discussed, after the same mode of reasoning that is invariably followed in matters of science generally. This is a tacit acknowledgement of our incompetency to make a critical comparison of ships' properties, upon understood principles; and the reason is, that we have not been accustomed to take up naval architecture as a branch of philosophy, but have regarded it as an art involved in greater obscurity, and accompanied with more difficulties than really belonged to it; and having thus neglected to analyze its principles in a manner commensurate with the extent of the subject, we now find ourselves but imper-

fectly acquainted with a science, above all others important to the true interests of this country."

We fully coincide in these sentiments, and would wish to see in all our public institutions such adherence to abstract principles, that accidental circumstances may seldom be admitted. The great desideratum is, to unite the advantages of the theoretical and practical knowledge of naval architecture. We do not, of course, by the latter mean the mere manual building of ships, but the available considerations arising from inducted skill; and when to these can be added the science of sailing them to the best advantage, under all the endless variety of shape, stowage, equipment, and weather, we may hope for an approach to perfection.

In naval architecture, above most subjects, it is found difficult *à priori*, or from mere inspection, to assign where the cause of defect or excellence lies, but the cause is not therefore the less certain; it only requires a greater extent of knowledge, for the same reason that rules are not the less correct because complicated.

The subject may be divided into two principal branches, the ship's bottom, or *body to be moved* through a resisting medium,—and the masts and rigging, or *moving force*, by the means of another resisting medium, the wind. To aid us in obtaining this essential knowledge, the author points out that, instead of being satisfied with the loose answers given to questions, themselves too general, respecting ship's qualities, we should put better constructed inquiries, and require them to be answered under every variation of the case, so as to calculate the properties of the whole of our ships. We should have tables of the weight of the appurtenances to different-sized ships. Descriptive drawings of every mode of stowage. Plans of sails, and rigging-draughts, with the respective centre of effort. A professional library, including foreign books. The proceedings of the office to be journalized, giving also the result of the correspondence with the several dock-yards, or other naval officers. An organized series of experiments, detailing the views with which each was made, and the result. All this might be easily added to an embryo institution, the "School for Naval Architecture" at Portsmouth, which well deserves to be perfected by the fostering care of the Admiralty, instead of being left to pine in neglect and penury; for surely penury it may be called, when we see the materials consumed at the various dock-yards amount to 750,000*l.* the other expenses of those establishments to 135,000*l.* and then the School for Naval Architecture, which if properly managed would conduce to essential economy in all the rest, amount to 370*l.*! including "retaining incomes to students of naval architecture, some of whom have nearly attained middle age, without having been nominated even to their first permanent appointments."

The importance of this science was perceived a century and a half ago, for a proof of which see Sir William Petty's admirable outline of a system of Naval Philosophy; nor are our continental neighbours blind to it in the present age, as has been evinced to us by the perseverance of Capt. Dupin in gleaning from our own yards.

3. *Mr. Gurney's Observations on* STEAM CARRIAGES.—This is a subject of more importance both to soldiers and sailors, than they may at first be aware of, for it requires no great gift of prophecy to foretell that the powers of fire and water are likely to interfere with every branch of military and naval economy. As one of the ramifications of the extensive uses of steam, the present pamphlet is worthy of the attention of our readers; and we cannot but join in the sentiments of the Report of the House of Commons upon the subject:—"The substitution of inanimate for animal power is one of the most important improvements in the means of internal communication ever introduced;—its practicability they consider to have been fully established."

As early as 1822, Mr. Gurney, in his Lectures on Chemistry, asserted the possibility of steam-carriages proceeding on common roads, against the opi-

nion of almost all the scientific men of the day, except the discerning Dr. Wollaston. At the suggestion of Sir Humphrey Davy, Mr. Gurney tried to substitute many gases for the moving power, but found nothing equal to steam. It was a doctrine among engineers that the wheels of a steam-carriage would be likely to turn on their axis, without propelling the machine forward. And a vehicle on Mr. Gurney's principle steamed round London in 1825, a long time before this theoretical error could be erased from the public mind.

Then a second obstacle was imagined,—that steam-carriages could not be propelled *up hill* on common roads. This was also a theoretic error, owing to the false analogy drawn from this fact on rail-roads, where the power of traction on an ascent of one inch per foot, requires to be twenty-one times greater than on a plain,—but on common roads it need only be doubled. And a steam-carriage was accordingly successfully sent to a variety of hilly roads, up Highgate-hill, Stanmore-hill, Brockey-hill, &c.

During the spring of last year, a steam-carriage was established as a public conveyance between Gloucester and Cheltenham, and travelling four times a day between those places, carried upwards of three thousand passengers without a single accident, in less time than the horse coaches, and at half the fare. This triumph, however, induced its rivals to get Parliament to impose enormous tolls upon the steam-carriage at every gate, such as 2*l*.—2*l*. 4*s*. and 3*l*. 8*s*.—which of course subdued the steam for a time. But Mr. Gurney applied to Parliament for redress, and the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons is as highly favourable to him as could possibly be. It sees numerous important results from the substitution of steam for horse-draught, and does not fear any disadvantages. Its own words are given, so that the reader may judge for himself, and the evidence of Colonel Torrens is peculiarly striking. He estimates the number of draught horses in England at one million, and as the food of one horse would support eight men, their final disappearance would leave food for eight millions more of human beings, which of course would greatly increase the political importance of our empire. Then the saving of one half in the expense of bringing articles to market, is a manifold benefit, which would act with complicated power, all tending to the greater enjoyment of life by the body of the people.

This is so insisted upon by the Colonel, that we must extract the whole paragraph from his report:—

"I conceive that agriculture is prosperous in proportion as the quantity of produce brought to market exceeds the quantity expended in bringing it there. If steam-carriages be employed instead of carriages drawn by horses, it will be because that mode of conveyance is found the cheapest. Cheapening the carriage of the produce of the soil, must necessarily diminish the quantity of produce expended in bringing a given quantity to market, and will therefore increase the net surplus, which net surplus constitutes the encouragement to agriculture. For example, if it requires the expenditure of two hundred quarters of corn to raise four hundred, and the expenditure of one hundred more on carriage to bring the four hundred to market, then the net surplus will be one hundred. If, by the substitution of steam-carriages, you can bring the same quantity to market with an expenditure of only fifty quarters, then your net surplus is increased from one hundred to one hundred and fifty quarters; and consequently, either the farmer's profit or the landlord's rent increased in a corresponding proportion. There are many tracts of land which cannot now be cultivated, because the quantity of produce expended in cultivation and carriage, exceeds the quantity which that expenditure would bring to market; but if you diminish the quantity expended in bringing a given quantity to market, then you may obtain a net surplus produce from *such inferior soils, and consequently allow cultivation to be extended over tracts which could not otherwise be tilled.*"

Yet, great as this improvement would be, it could not be brought into action but by slow degrees, therefore the depreciation of horses would be

gradual, and give their present possessors time to diminish their stock, and turn their industry into other channels. Mr. Davies Gilbert has shown that the quantity of fuel for a given distance is the same, whether travelled at the rate of three miles or ten miles per hour, by steam; whilst by horse-draught the slow rate is the cheapest possible, and the quick the dearest, requiring frequent relays of horses, and those of the highest prices. He also, together with Messrs. Macneil, M'Adam, and Telford, proves that steam-carriages are not more injurious than common ones to roads, indeed less so, since the horses' feet do more injury than the wheels. The only fear on this head would be, if the new vehicles were made of an enormous weight, but of this there is little chance, because large engines are much less convenient. One ton per inch in the breadth of wheel, is not found to be too much for a well-made road; nor would there in draught by steam, be the same temptation to make the tire of the wheel circular in the cross direction, as in draught by horses; because the breadth is rather an advantage in the former, by enabling the propelling power to advance without slipping; and in the latter, on the contrary, in order to reduce the friction, even the tire of the broad-wheeled waggon does not exceed three inches in its flat part. The excess of toll, therefore, lately imposed, is not at all requisite or just.

We are all aware how much the importance of our commerce has been increased by the substitution of steam-engines for horses in manufactures, —then, how much shall we be still more benefited by a similar substitution for draught horses,—a subject of vast extent, when we consider that on the Paddington road alone, for instance, a distance of only five miles, there are no less than one thousand horses employed.

As to the short-sighted fear of inconvenience to the present possessors of horses, let us but remember, that had it not been for the substitution of wheeled vehicles for *pack-horses*, England would never have reached its present splendour, for the requisite number of those animals to do the labour that is now going on would have consumed *all* the grain this country could produce!

Having gone attentively through Mr. Gurney's pamphlet, with the most impartial views, and anxious but for information, we can only repeat the sentiments of the Committee of the House of Commons; for the truth and correctness of their conclusion is fully made out by the *facts*, not mere arguments, detailed by our zealous author, to whom we think the public is highly indebted—for he has, with the most praiseworthy perseverance, ridden his hobby for six years, until he reached the desired and honourable goal. The extortionate and prohibitory tolls imposed by a misguided Parliament, obliged him to dismount for a time, but as the broad wheels of the engine attached to the coach are even less injurious to roads than the feet of four horses would be, we trust that, the injustice and imprudence of raising such obstacles being evident, they will soon be removed, and that Mr. Gurney will triumphantly mount again, when we shall be most happy to avail ourselves of the victory, and rejoice in the additional strength conferred on our country by the invention of this iron horse.

4. *On the benefit of* FIELD GARDENS *for the Labouring Poor. By Capt. Scobell, R.N.*—This is truly turning the sword into the ploughshare, and we are glad to find a son of Neptune so usefully and benevolently employed. In these short but pithy observations, Capt. Scobell calls for unanimous and remedial measures to recover and retain the better feelings of the misguided labourers, and then points out the manifest advantages of assisting them by granting small portions, according to their wants, of good land at a fair rent. This, though no loss to the large landed proprietors, is an infinite assistance to poor labouring families, as instanced at Midsomer-Norton, and High Littledon, near Bath; especially at the former, where no less than thirty acres being shared among one hundred and thirty-two labourers, they culti-

vated the ground with great alacrity and thankfulness, and brought in the rent with the utmost punctuality. The present seems a time that peculiarly calls upon the affluent to attend to such a rational way of assisting poor labourers, for their minds have unfortunately been misled by designing rioters, who, having nothing themselves to lose, do not care what effects their attempts to produce a general scramble may have. Many charities have been ill arranged from the beginning,—others have been subsequently mismanaged,—and most of them, we regret to say, have a tendency to diminish that forethought for old age and sickness, without which the lower classes must degenerate into paupers. But the system here recommended, of giving them gardens at a reasonable rate—for instance, the land alluded to, near Bath, was let at five pence farthing per pole, or 3*l.* 10*s.* per acre, including the maintaining of fences, parish rates, and tithes—this system, we repeat, is free from all objections, and teaches the labourer's *families* also to cultivate to the best advantage, and to economise their time, instead of loitering about public houses.

We hear of the most beneficial results from all parts of England where field gardens have been granted, and independent of Capt. Scobell's report, we have also *seen* their good effects, and shall truly rejoice if this encomium on "letting small portions of good land to the labouring poor," should induce any more landholders to adopt this really patriotic principle. We will be content for the present with a glance at the author's further views. "Though I do not include, in the inducements for adoption, the prospective reduction of poor rates, it is not that it might not be available to strengthen my opinions, but rather that I would be the advocate of the system on higher and more generous motives."

Having explained and recommended his ideas, the Captain concludes thus:—"On the plan to which I have directed attention, I have reflected much; and I again record my deliberate conviction, that if the landed proprietors will *themselves* take the matter in hand, allot good land for a series of years at farmer's rent — mix no *paupers* with the self-maintaining labourers, and allow no parish officers, *as such*, to appear in the arrangements, that a system of 'field gardens' so constituted, would act as a talisman on the rural population."

Though we think Capt. Scobell perfectly right in requesting good land for the labouring classes, we think the project of cultivating the poorer soils ought not to be lost sight of. All our attempts hitherto have failed from impatience, and the aversion of speculative economists. But what is in the power of human labour properly applied, upon any soil, may be estimated when passing barren heaths, and merely looking at the land which here and there surrounds a detached cottage, forming a contrast with the adjacent waste, as striking as that of an oasis in a desert. The cause of this difference of fertility is sufficiently obvious; and where the improvers are assisted in the outfit, appears to be perfectly manageable. It is by such means that large tracts have been reclaimed from sterility in the Netherlands; and though the process was slow, the productive power of the soil has been raised to a profitable pitch. But it must not be forgotten, that this success was the result of clear and well-arranged previous calculation, rather than the momentary impulse and sanguine excitement by which such measures are usually promoted; and in the hope of sudden wealth, the projectors have too often forgot the slow march in which nature indulges.

5. *On a new Shower Bath, and an Apparatus for restoring* SUSPENDED ANIMATION. *By John Murray, F.S.A. &c.*—We have before noticed this gentleman's efforts to preserve the lives of shipwrecked seamen, and we have now a pamphlet describing an ingenious improvement on the shower-bath, and giving valuable directions to be observed, in the treatment requisite to resuscitate persons who are apparently drowned.

Besides bathing being in every form a luxurious method for promoting

corporeal cleanliness, it is so beneficial in the respective diseases for which it is prescribed, that we gladly peruse any proposal for facilitating the process. Mr. Murray has particularly turned his attention to modifying the shower-bath according to the strength of the patient; this he contrives chiefly by suspending the vessel containing the water, and which for brevity we will term the "cloud," at any height by a rope and pulley, lowering it according as the shock is required to be less strong. The patient can also suspend or renew the shower at pleasure, a conviction that is essential to persons in a very weak or nervous state. The "cloud" is charged by being lowered into a tub of water until quite full, the small aperture at the top is then closed by a *valve*, so that unless this is raised, no water escapes from the pierced orifices below, until the patient, by a string attached to the lever of the valve, admits the pressure of the air above, and thus occasions the shower to fall. This is an elegant way of enlisting natural philosophy into our service, and disarms this excellent and convenient mode of bathing of all its former objections. The use of the flesh-brush between the showers tends much to aid the proper action of the skin, and by having the water tepid or warm, bathing may be recurred to with advantage, even in those complaints which do not admit of cold effusion.

Besides offering to the public a highly improved apparatus for inflating the lungs of drowned persons, Mr. Murray enhances the benefit by some very sensible remarks, leading to precautions too often neglected. He recommends long *perseverance*, provided there be the least action left in the heart, and instead of the cold and irregular blasts produced by the bellows commonly used for forcing respiration, the author recommends two cylinders, concentric to each other; the inner one is furnished with a piston at one end and a pliable tube at the other, to be introduced into the mouth; while the space between the two cylinders is filled with water heated to 98°, so as to warm the air which is to be forced into the lungs of the patient. So essential is a genial temperature, that a warm bath is strongly recommended, and, for the same reason, gentle friction with spirits severely condemned, owing to their quick evaporation generating cold. The injection of the fumes of tobacco is also a sad error, since the narcotic nature of that plant rather paralyses than excites motion.

According to the several causes of the suspension of animation, the various chemical aids may be called,—thus if carbonic acid gas was the enemy, a drop of ammonia may be mingled with the air in the cylinder; or a few drops of chloride of lime, if an antidote be required to sulphuretted hydrogen. Nor is Mr. Murray self-sufficient, but earnestly enters into the merits of other people's discoveries when he thinks that they deserve to be more generally known, and of these quotations we will give a specimen.

"Mr. Brodie assumes the following as corollaries. 1. If the lungs be inflated, the action of the heart will continue. 2. If the action of the heart has become feeble, but the circulation is nevertheless not suspended, the inflation of the lungs will cause this feeble action to become again frequent and vigorous. 3. If the action of the heart has entirely ceased, it is impossible to restore it by inflating the lungs. 4. If the action of the heart has *not* entirely ceased, but is so feeble as not to maintain the circulation, the artificial respiration will prove as useless as if the heart was perfectly motionless. The two last deductions may apply, as far as *mechanical* inflation goes, but Mr. Brodie cannot presume to assert that they may certainly stand their ground, if electrical stimuli, together with the judicious application of heat, external and internal, be superadded to this mechanical inflation. Mr. Brodie never succeeded in restoring the heart's action by galvanism, in an animal dead from syncope; and yet the conjoined effect of *temperature* and *electrical stimuli* might have been effective; for in Dr. Babington's cases of asphyxia from carbonic acid gas, galvanism and oxygen were successful. It must be admitted, however, notwithstanding Dr. Ure's sanguine expectations, there is but feeble prospect of hope from the employment of voltaic electricity alone. It is not a little singular that in this estimate the important fact, as shown by Bichat, should be

overlooked, namely, that the *involuntary muscles are not obedient to voltaic power*, though galvanism may be useful as an *auxiliary* in returning animation, in exciting the contractions of the diaphragm and other muscles connected with respiration. M. L. D'Etiolles inserts a short and fine needle into the sides of the body between the eighth and ninth ribs, so as to come into contact with the attachment of the diaphragm, then passes galvanism from twenty-five to thirty pairs of one-inch plates; the diaphragm immediately contracts, and an inspiration is effected: this is repeated by interrupting and completing the circuit."

6. *A compendium of* NAVAL ARCHITECTURE: *arranged in questions and answers. By Robert Brindley, Architect and Surveyor.*—This is a very unpretending but clever little volume, which ought to find its way into the jacket pocket of every midshipman in the service; ay, and of most other officers also. The utility of portable publications on particular scientific or professional pursuits, is too evident to need mention, for every adventitious aid that can be given to youth, in the arduous acquirements with which they are to qualify themselves, puts them a step higher on the ladder. Both the building and working of ships well, so as to give reasons for what is done, are founded upon strictly mathematical principles, and though men may occasionally construct a vessel, or tack one, without a grain of knowledge beyond mere "rule of thumb," the fact does not demolish the argument. Hundreds of seamen have doubtlessly been indebted to the Seaman's Grammar by Capt. John Smith, and the works of Mainwaring, Boteler, Falconer, and other worthies,—some of whose labours are unfortunately too rare to be greatly available. But the work of Mr. Brindley is in a cheap form; here theory and explanation are given by a practical man; and though it were easy to point out where the book, small as it is, could be improved both by retrenchment and addition, we will rather hold it forth as deserving of general approbation.

7. *On the Enlisting, Discharging, and Pensioning of Soldiers, &c. By Henry Marshall, Deputy Inspector-General of Army Hospitals.*—We know not a work of more practical use than the compilation under the above title, which the judgment and industry of Mr. Marshall have combined to produce for the guidance of the service. Mr. Marshall is well known to the army as a keen investigator of the fictitious means resorted to by soldiers for the purpose of obtaining pensions, and as the author of "Hints to Young Officers," in connection principally with that subject. His present publication, which he appropriately dedicates to Sir Henry Hardinge, by whom, when Secretary-at-War, its plan was originally suggested, comprises, in addition to the original observations of the compiler, every official document bearing upon the established system of enlisting, discharging, and pensioning of soldiers in the British service. This obviously useful collection is farther illustrated and augmented by historical and statistical sketches of the corresponding systems of the East India Company, and France, with explanatory tables and scales. The practice of ancient Rome is also adduced.

Little, if any thing, in this important department has been omitted from Mr. Marshall's publication; which we strongly recommend to the service, as a valuable manual and an authentic book of reference.

The length of the foregoing Reviews will account for our omission of a variety of Publications, to which we shall give our earliest attention.

GENERAL CORRESPONDENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNITED SERVICE JOURNAL.

Remarks on the Cavalry operations at Fuentes d'Onore. By Lieut.-Colonel Badcock.

Mr. Editor,—Observing in the last Number of the U. S. Journal, an article relating to the cavalry operations during the battle of Fuentes d'Onore, I find it deficient in many particulars. Insomuch as after mentioning the affair of pickets under Capt. Brotherton at Pozovelho, it leaves out entirely the principal affair, which took place on the main road leading from Nava d'Aver to Fort Conception. The whole of the cavalry under Major-Gen. Slade did not number above 1000, one squadron of which was detached to the left, to observe the road leading from Fort Conception to Castillas de dos Casas. A large column of cavalry advanced, as described by the writer, near 4000 in number, by Nava d'Aver, in column of squadrons, for the apparent purpose of cutting off the extended right of our infantry, and forcing their way to Almeida. A squadron of the 14th Light Dragoons, under Capt. Miller, (composed of Captains Miller and Knipe's troops,) were drawn up across the road to check this attack, and flanked by the infantry retreating. This squadron, on the near approach of the enemy's column, met the charge, and broke through their first squadron, and were jammed into the ranks of the second squadron of the enemy (the 22nd chasseurs), when a complete *melée* took place. Sir F. Hervey, who had observed the perilous situation of the squadron, rode to Gen. Slade, who brought up the remainder of the cavalry, and attacked the right flank of the enemy's column, which, aided by the fire of the infantry on the other flank, stopped their farther advance. A considerable number were killed, and many prisoners were taken, amongst whom a Colonel; more would have been made, but we were desired not to encumber ourselves with them. (Miller, Badcock, Ellis, wounded by sabres). The cavalry then retired under a continued cannonade, covering the retreat of the infantry till we reached the line formed facing the village of Fuentes d'Onore.

The writer then proceeds to say, he could not account for a forward movement made in the afternoon by a detachment of the Royals and 14th Dragoons. The case was this: after the above-mentioned *melée* had taken place, the enemy's cavalry followed at a distance, and then disappeared altogether. But some guns of theirs were stationed on a rising ground, (the ground being wavy,) which annoyed us with round shot, and raked the plain in front of our infantry. A squadron of each regiment were left to observe this plain, and relieved at intervals. In the afternoon, Sir Stapleton Cotton ordered an attack to be made upon these guns, as they appeared unprotected; (by the 14th Light Dragoons, it happened to be the same squadron that was in the former melée). The guns, as we approached near enough, opened a fire of grape shot, and when we arrived within a short distance, a large body of cavalry showed immediately in the rear of the guns, who had been concealed from our view in the hollow; we therefore retired, but in good order. Capt. Knipe (the Commander) received his mortal wound by a grape-shot passing through his breast; he was a brave officer, and had received a ball through his neck at Oporto, on the passage of the Douro, in an attack of infantry.

I mention also a curious circumstance that occurred, which is this. Some one had picked up in a house a volume of Sterne's Sentimental Journey, and whilst we were waiting in the morning the advance of the enemy, one of us read it to the others lying on the ground, holding our horses; when being aroused by the rapid advance of the enemy and the sound of a cannon-ball over our heads, Hervey, getting up, said he would put the book into his sabre-tasche. Some little time afterwards, a cannon-shot struck

his horse, passed through his sabre-tasche, and through the book and body of the horse, which fell dead, and bulged through the horse's right side, giving a violent contusion to the Colonel. Had the ball pierced through the skin, it would in all probability have broken the Colonel's leg, and deprived him of his right leg, he having already lost his right arm at Oporto.

The cavalry, few as they were, in comparison with the enemy's force, were on the 3rd of May previous to the battle, engaged in a sharp skirmish, and the pickets continued under a fire of the enemy's artillery, besides doing all the fatiguing duty of the out-posts.

I have the honour to be, &c. &c. &c.

London, 12th April 1832. LOVELL BADCOCK, Lieut.-Colonel.

Capt. Horsburgh on the Barrier Reefs on the Coast of Australasia.

We have been favoured with the following letter from Capt. James Horsburgh, Hydrographer of the East India Company. We gladly give it insertion, and we shall at all times be happy to avail ourselves of the practical information of an authority, perhaps, the highest in the world upon all subjects connected with the intricate navigation of the eastern hemisphere. Capt. Horsburgh's letter is accompanied by a beautiful chart of the passages which he recommends through the Barrier Reefs on the eastern coast of Australia.

MR. EDITOR,—Permit me to present you with a chart of passages through the Barrier Reefs of Australia, and I shall be glad if you will allow a notice of these passages to appear in your excellent and widely-extended professional Journal.

This route towards Torres Straits, which lies in lat. about 11° 50′ S. ought to be generally known, having great advantages over the route formerly used, by the Eastern Fields and Murray's Island, where numerous vessels have been wrecked when proceeding through that dangerous navigation; as they must be at least one, if not two nights among reefs, where no anchorage is obtained, and at the same time subject to strong currents. Whereas, the route here recommended, has moderate depths for anchorage, as soon as any ship enters through the barrier by the passages shown on the chart, of which there are *three* very near to each other. When the chart was engraved, Stead's passage was laid down and described as that best known; but lately, Capt. Grove has supplied me with his track in the Eliza, and Capt. Beaufort obligingly furnished the track marked Joseph Winter's passage, both of which have been just now laid down on the chart, to give greater confidence to navigators. No person who is apprised of these openings in the barrier, would ever afterwards think of following the old route by the Eastern Fields and Murray's Island, which, exclusive of its intricate navigation, is about thirty leagues longer in distance than the one now pointed out. Some ships have been only two days from entering the barrier in the morning, until clear of Torres Strait at Booby Island. But the route by Murray's Island, under the most favourable circumstances, must always occupy a much greater length of time, and be attended with *fourfold* dangers, in comparison with the route which I wish strongly to recommend.

I am, Mr. Editor, your obedient servant,

JAS. HORSBURGH.

East India House, April 2nd, 1832.

Suggestion for a Naval and Military Lunatic Asylum. By Sir Andrew Halliday.

MR. EDITOR,—If I am not already too late, I beg you will oblige me by giving insertion to this letter in the Journal for the present month; and on your communicating this my first appeal to the public, I shall feel perfectly

satisfied that I may count upon the powerful support of the Editor of the United Service Journal, with whom so many suggestions for the good of the United Service have originated, and by whose assistance others have been made known and have succeeded. It is my misfortune not to have the honour of your personal acquaintance, but I plead in so good a cause that I have felt little hesitation in thus suddenly addressing you as a friend. For several years past I have been anxiously considering the possibility of establishing an Asylum for the protection and proper treatment of the officers and men of His Majesty's Navy and Army, who, from wounds, the hardships of service, or unhealthy climates, have been cast upon the world in a state of helpless insanity. There are few charities against which some objections may not be urged; nay, in these reforming times, it would require little logic to prove that even the great national establishments of Greenwich and Chelsea are worse than useless, and might be abolished with benefit to the country and infinite advantage to the individuals for whose support they were created. Let but half the money which each in-pensioner costs the country be paid to him in his native province; let him return to the friends of his youth and scenes of his infancy, and he will be a much more respectable veteran than he can ever become as a *loiterer* in the courts of either hospital, or a *sot* in the gin-shops and pot-houses with which they are surrounded. And farther, exclaims the calculating economist, without increasing the dead-weight, some hundreds more of worn-out veterans might be amply provided for. With regard, however, to the charity which I have in view, every thing may be said in its favour, and not even one objection can be brought against it. In the naval and military, as in civil life, almost every class of sufferers had some refuge to which they would retreat, or some charity upon which they could make a demand when no longer able to continue in the public service. But till a very late period, indeed, the maniac (the only truly helpless invalid) was without a public friend or a possible shelter; consequently, he became the prey of the dealers in human misery, and his confinement was contracted for by some private madhouse-keeper, without any security being required for his being either supplied with the common necessaries of life, or treated with the common feelings of humanity. The discoveries made by a Select Committee of the House of Commons led to the establishment which exists at Haslar, as a part of the Naval Hospital Establishment there, and the benevolent heart of Sir James M'Grigor suggested the arrangements at Fort Clarence, which, through his unwearied zeal and attention, have been made as perfect as the nature of the place will admit of, and where, for some years, the afflicted officers and soldiers have been treated, by men of high standing in the profession, with every kindness and humanity. I feel, Sir, that I scarcely do justice to the Director-General by stating thus much, and I should act unfairly by Sir William Burnett if I did not also add, that his judicious arrangements and great improvements in the lunatic wards at Haslar, do honour both to his head and his heart; but neither the one place nor the other can ever be made what is now imperiously called for—an Hospital for the Cure of Insanity, with all the proper arrangements and advantages of those public asylums that are now springing up in every county in the United Empire, and are already found so beneficial in checking the progress of this most awful of all human afflictions; and where, from opportunities being offered for studying the disease with greater accuracy and a closer attention, it has been stripped of many of its appalling horrors, its treatment better understood—and hence hundreds, nay thousands, of innocent beings, who at no distant period would have been consigned to solitary imprisonment and torture for life, are now daily restored to health and the happiness of their usual intercourse with friends and society.

My object is to raise, by subscriptions and voluntary contributions, a sum sufficient to build an hospital upon the best principles for the treatment of those officers and men, of both services, now suffering from, or who hereafter

may become afflicted with mental derangement. When we find that from the judicious treatment of the medical officers at Haslar and Chatham, the number of cures is very considerable, notwithstanding the great drawbacks attached to these establishments, what may we not expect when all such drawbacks are removed?

I shall not encroach upon your pages at the present moment farther than just to state, that I propose the hospital shall be built in the neighbourhood of the metropolis. I have already the promise of as much money as will purchase the ground, and have even proceeded so far as to examine one or two spots. I know at what price I can have ten acres, beautifully situated on Twickenham Common; but have seen a still more eligible situation on Wimbledon Common, which, when matters are more in train, the good Earl Spencer may, perhaps, be prevailed upon to grant on lease, or as a copy-hold of the manor. The plans are preparing by a talented Post-Captain of the navy, and when finished I shall have them engraved for circulation with the United Service Journal. Next month, with your permission, I shall enter into farther details and explanations, and in the mean time shall feel truly grateful for any information or suggestions with which such of your numerous readers as take an interest in those matters will be pleased to favour me, observing as a very necessary N.B. that I hope all such communications will be *franked*.

I am, Sir,

Your very constant reader, and obliged,

Hampton Court,
April 19, 1832.

Andrew Halliday, M.D.
Deputy Inspector-General of Army Hospitals.

Capt. Hall on an improvement in Massey's Sounding Machine.

Mr. Editor,—In your Journal for April, a correspondent signing himself "An Old Officer," recommends Mr. Massey to devise some modification of his Sounding Machine which might prevent the cylinder being compressed and rendered useless when the depth of water is great.

I think it no more than justice to the ingenious inventor of the Patent Sounding Machine—(one of the most useful instruments we possess)—to mention that, very shortly after its introduction, a remedy for the evil complained of was applied to the revolving cylinders in question. A few holes being drilled in the lower part, allowed the water to enter as the pressure increased, and thus the possibility of the compression alluded to was entirely prevented.

You may possibly think this communication too trivial for a place in the U. S. Journal; but as I feel extremely anxious to take every opportunity of bringing into more general notice a machine which long experience has shown me to be eminently useful in practice, I shall be well pleased if you insert this note.

I remain, your obedient servant,

London, 16th April 1832.

Basil Hall, Captain R.N.

Lieut. Maw on the Burmese War.

Mr. Editor,—Although you and I have in times of general peace taken up the pen, a war of words is not after the habits of our professions; I shall, therefore, not "snipe" at you with a black and white "materiel."

Whilst, however, I wish to avoid literary litigation, and whilst also I thank you for the compliments you have paid me, which are, perhaps, more than I deserve, I must still tell you that in some points you are not right, nor have you always done justice to my "Memoir."

During the time I held the appointment of Naval Aid-de-camp at Rangoon, one of the principal out of the various duties I had to perform was,

to communicate between the general and the senior naval officer; and whilst thus employed I made it my rule, whenever any thing should be said which did not immediately relate to the service, and which the sayer might afterwards wish unsaid, to deliver what was evidently essential, and leave the rest to follow as the leaders themselves might or might not desire. By such common sense proceeding, I was, perhaps, in some measure enabled to prevent collision. I may, however, mention, that in the first communication I had with Capt. Marryat, as the senior naval officer, he informed me, "that if any thing went wrong, which he thought probably would be the case, and I gave any opinion which might be asked, he would try me by court-martial." That I did not exactly merit court-martial, perhaps not even the threat, Capt. Marryat's own despatch on my leaving Rangoon and other documents may show.

The communications and co-operation between the combined forces did not at all times, even during the war, proceed quite so amicably as you appear to suppose, else why was Capt. Bremer sent to Calcutta to communicate with the Governor-General? and why was a long and not very cordial correspondence referred to His Majesty's Government in this country?

On my return from the Marañon, a connexion of Sir A. Campbell's—not Colonel Snodgrass—gave me an account of continued disagreements between the two services, and asked, as I had "been Naval Aid-de-camp," what I thought of them? I said that in my opinion all disagreements were bad; that when employed during the war, I had endeavoured to prevent and would then have nothing to do with maintaining them; that although I had been on the General's staff, I belonged to the navy; that it appeared to me all had done their duty, all merited well, and all ought to have fair play.

After the publication of my journal of a passage down the Marañon, &c. my health was bad, and I went for some weeks into the country, amongst other places to the neighbourhood of Portsmouth, where I saw Capt. Chads. He was civil enough to show me his correspondence, and I expressed to him my regret that there should be any disagreement between the two services. Hearing that Sir Archibald Campbell had arrived in England, I got into the mail and came up to town, supposing he might retain some of the kind feeling he had formerly shown towards me, and might permit me, as his former Naval Aid-de-camp, to say more than I otherwise could.

Sir Archibald expressed his disapprobation of the proceedings which had taken place both in his own name, which he assured me were without his sanction, and otherwise, and said that no one was more desirous of doing justice to "his gallant friends—the Navy" than himself. I went down again to Fareham, and saw Capt. Chads, from whom I subsequently received a note, informing me "that he had received a letter from Sir Archibald, written in his usual friendly style," and "I beg you to accept my thanks for the interest you have taken in the affair." The surviving chiefs being thus again brought into friendly communication, I did not attempt to interfere farther.

When, however, the article on "Naval Operations" appeared in the Number of your Journal for January last, Sir Archibald Campbell and Colonel Snodgrass having just left the country, and being in a position whence they could not easily communicate at that season, I determined on once more attempting to set matters right, by endeavouring to do justice to all as far as I personally knew. It would have been absurd, if not incorrect, for me to have gone farther, and from what I have heard, the first campaign was, perhaps, the most trying. Whether I have given any information, the public will, of course, judge.

One reason more for my publishing was, that although much had been vehemently said about "doing justice to the navy," it appeared to me that but slight justice had been done to the memory of one whom I am bound to consider amongst the best, the very best, as he was amongst the principal officers employed—the late Commodore Grant! And I will now add, that

had he survived the war, I do not believe the disagreements between the two services could or would have existed.

I might now, Mr. Editor, enter into detail upon points where I think you have not done justice to my "Memoir;" for instance, how can you, Mr. Editor, complain that I have only copied *half* your *paragraph*, when you have chopped up my *sentences?* I do not know what impression the paragraph, or half paragraph if you please, I quoted from you may have made upon other readers, but it appears to me very much like the reasoning of a person who had felt the effects of "the debilitating site" and the want of refreshments, "without having had very frequent opportunities of observing the numbers and prowess of the Burmese." There was a curious inequality in your paper of January: some affairs which did not at the time appear very great were brought glaringly forward, whilst others of superior importance were thrown in the background.

My reason for referring to Capt. Ryves in the affair at Kemendine on the 3rd of June, was to show, that as indirect accusations are brought against Sir Archibald now, when he is out of the way, so were underhand insinuations circulated against Capt. Ryves at the time. Wherever the one or the other originated, it is not for me to say. I repelled the insinuations as I felt it to be my duty at the time; I have now denied the charge brought against Sir Archibald.

Notwithstanding your opinion of the want of courage of the Burmans, I think some of the circumstances mentioned in my Memoir tend to show that they were not always wanting in that quality: for instance, at the attack on the smaller stockade of Kemendine, on the 10th of June, which "was one of the few instances in which we were enabled to effect a breach."

"When the breach was made, the Burmans stood in the trenches, heaving earth into the breach to fill it up, whilst the eighteen-pound shots were going in amongst them; and when the Madras European regiment, led by a party of volunteers, was ordered up to storm, they were checked, faced to the right, and commenced firing. Sir Archibald, seeing that delay might be injurious, ordered a detachment of the gallant 41st to storm, which they did under Major Chambers, and carried the stockade, but not before the Major had been speared through the cheek and upper part of the palate, of which I understand he is since dead."—*Memoir*, p. 37.

Surely the Burmans were not on this occasion wanting in courage? Moreover, how was it that such numbers, especially of officers who usually led the assaults, were killed or wounded? In conclusion, I have ever been of opinion that disagreements between different branches of the national force are bad, and that when employed on service, whether a man wears a red jacket or a blue one, his business is to do his duty. Nor do I believe that the proper mode of elevating one branch of His Majesty's service, is by depreciating the services performed by another branch; and really, Sir, I do conceive, without in the least intending to accuse you of evil intention, that such was the tendency of the paper contained in your Number for January, and particularly of the paragraph I quoted from your sixteenth page.

For myself I can only say, that having done my utmost, slight as that utmost may be, to set matters right in the present instance, I now leave them to take their course, and feel that "Hap what hap," I have in this case done my duty.

Your obedient servant,

H. Lister Maw.

55, Park-street, Grosvenor-square, April 3rd, 1832.

*** We readily insert Lieut. Maw's rejoinder, and need scarcely qualify it by the remark, that it leaves the matter as nearly as possible where we had placed it. Mr. Maw appears to have completely misunderstood our object, which was precisely that which, by an odd invertion, he assumes as his own, in contradiction to our's—namely, to reclaim equal justice towards the relatively equal exertions of each branch of the service. This purpose, we have good reason to believe, is generally appreciated by both.—Ed.

The Admiralty—Official Visits to the Sea Ports.

Mr. Editor,—It would be a great improvement to the Navy Bill, if a clause was introduced authorising the First Lord of the Admiralty, on his visits to the sea ports, to hoist the Admiralty flag at the main, when unaccompanied by the Board; attached to him there should be a naval officer, styled Captain of the Fleet, to assist him in his inspections, and before whom officers should lay their claims and grievances when the First Lord could not see them. His place would be no sinecure. We have the authority of Sir George Cockburn, in his examination before the Finance Committee, that the reception of officers took up a great part of his time, and we all know that the Senior Naval Lord who has so many other things to occupy him, (and who will now have more,) cannot give that attention to officers they consider themselves entitled to.

It always has been, and is still a complaint, that we have no naval man to whom we can unbosom ourselves. We can go, it is true, three times a week to the first and second Naval Lords, but they have too much on their minds, to attend to, and remember all our stories. What we want is, a straightforward honest man, who is accessible at all times, and who will communicate to the First Lord all that is just and reasonable. We know he has neither time nor inclination to see us as often as we wish, and in point of fact, he is only visible to each officer once a year, and officers, particularly old ones, do not like to be referred to a Private Secretary; it is humiliating for old officers, many of them covered with honourable wounds, to be obliged to tell their tale even to a First Lord, who is a civilian, and the naval profession is the only one so circumstanced. The Army have their Commander-in-chief, the Military Secretary, the Adjutant and Quarter-Master-General; and the Ordnance, their Master-General, all of them professional men. The Navy alone, for some wise purpose best known to the Ministers, are sometimes ruled by a Civilian, sometimes by a General, but rarely by an Admiral. If I thought myself ill used, I could speak my mind boldly to an Admiral in language he would understand; but to a Cabinet Minister and Diplomatist, an interpreter is absolutely necessary. That interpreter ought to be what I propose. Officers in commission would also like to see the First Lord, thus accompanied, come oftener amongst them and see their ships. It is an ungrateful task to work hard, and get a ship in high order, and receive no praise.

I think it a bad plan the Admiralty coming on the quarter-deck of a ship as a Board; it takes up a great deal of their time, and does not carry the same weight, nor is it so efficient as their coming singly would be. The Bill should authorise the First Naval Lord to hoist the Admiralty flag at the fore, and the second at the mizen; in point of fact, they ought to be the Vice and Rear-Admirals of Great Britain, which ought no longer to be sinecures: when either of them were sent to the sea-ports, they ought to inspect the ships throughout, exercise them at every thing, and convey their sentiments to the officers and ships' companies in a public order, which would be a great stimulus in the present relaxed state of the Navy. The visit of the First Lord, or of the Vice or Rear-Admiral, should not be at stated times; it is much better to take ships by surprise, they would then see what state they were in.

Every naval officer must approve of the present Board keeping a squadron, on the home station, of five sail of the line efficient, instead of nine or ten ships lying in the different harbours, with a frigate's ship's company doing nothing; the officers living on shore, acquiring habits of idleness, and the midshipmen either driving about or fox-hunting. The ships should be kept as much as possible together, and at constant exercise, which is the only means of creating emulation. An occasional trip to sea during the winter, by a telegraphic message, or by post, would do them a great deal of good, and keep them on the alert; it would give the midshipmen an oppor-

tunity of seeing a gale of wind, and teach them how to take in a topsail in bad weather; at present, it is not uncommon in passing days, to find that many never saw a gale of wind in their lives.

I have the honour to be, Sir,
Your obedient servant,
AN OLD OFFICER.

Proceedings of Courts-Martial.

MR. EDITOR,—In the last United Service Journal a correspondent, "Observer," offers some remarks on observations which I had hazarded in the former Number, on a remark made by the prosecutor on the close of the examination of private Denny, a witness on the trial of Capt. Warrington. If the purpose of the prosecutor, in submitting the expediency of again examining witnesses, was to re-establish the credibility of a witness whose *character* had been impugned, or reflected on by a witness for the defence, nothing, I admit, could be more regular or less liable to objection; but, Mr. Editor, after a careful perusal of the various reports of the trial, as given in the journals of the day, I cannot find that the testimony of private Denny, so much as referred, by the most distant insinuation, to any witness examined by the prosecutor. The prosecutor's witnesses were not, if the reports in the public papers be correct, in any instance impeached. The very essence of a defence must often be to shake the collective proof afforded by the witnesses for the prosecution; but when the prosecutor finds by the course of the defence, that the testimony which he has relied on to substantiate his charges is likely to be *broken down*, he cannot, it is apprehended, re-open the prosecution by examining fresh witnesses to establish facts, which it had been, or ought to have been, the object of the prosecution to make apparent. The prosecutor, in the case in question, is not reported to have proposed to examine witnesses to impeach the credibility of private Denny, but to have said, that he "begged to observe, that the evidence of this witness went to invalidate and destroy *the chain* of evidence he had produced in support of this part of the charge; he must therefore request leave, if he considered it necessary, to produce fresh evidence in support of it."—*Courier, January* 31*st*.

From what "Observer" has offered, I have again, Mr. Editor, had recourse to Simmons, an authority which I am far from questioning, and I find that it is to re-establish the character or credibility of a witness impeached that the prosecutor is allowed a farther examination of witnesses; I cannot discover that he has the right to do so to repair a link which may be deficient, or which may require repair in his chain of evidence. The main point, however, in issue between "Observer" and myself is this—"Observer" considers that a witness of the prosecutor (it cannot be his evidence generally) had been reflected on and impugned by the testimony of private Denny; I cannot discover that any such attack was made upon any witness of the prosecutor (the testimony of witnesses may be conflicting without the veracity of either being impeached). I draw my information as to the trial from the papers; "Observer" has, perhaps, more correct authority to refer to, he might have been actually present.

In one respect, Mr. Editor, "Observer" is, I conceive, under a misapprehension. I did not impute to the prosecutor an "intention or desire" to re-open the prosecution for the purpose of "producing in succession such parts of it as had been held in reserve, in order the better to accord with the course of the defence, and render more certain the conviction of the prisoner;" what I charged the prosecutor with, on the faith of uncontradicted journals, was this—"An assumption, that because the evidence of the defence tended to impugn the chain of evidence which he thought unbroken, he should therefore be allowed to re-open the prosecution by the production of other witnesses." Whether the extract from the "Courier" above given

justifies such accusation, is a matter of which I must leave others to judge, but if it be fairly made, and the doctrine involved proved correct, or if it even pass unnoticed, it may quickly follow that the predicament, which I would shield a prisoner from, shall speedily supervene, and the case which I placed hypothetically, (not as a charge against the prosecutor,) actually occur. The Court and the Deputy Judge-Advocate were not, it is conceived, impeached by me, even by implication; the prosecutor did not "call fresh evidence," as he had proposed to do; and although "Observer" attributes the fact to a wish to save the court *unnecessary* trouble, yet it is equally probable that he did not do so from a conviction that the court would interfere to prevent it, or that he perceived the impropriety of the claim which he had made. The probability of this supposition may be inferred from the following extract from the proceedings, as they appear in the public prints; it must also afford the best proof that no blame is, with reference to this assumption of the prosecutor, imputable to the Court or Deputy Judge-Advocate.

"The President on the intimation (viz. the claim by Sir Charles Dalbiac as before related) said that it would be necessary that the court should be cleared, in order that the members might decide upon the proposition. He wished, however, Sir Charles would state whether it was his intention to ask that the proceedings should be *now* adjourned, in order that fresh evidence might be brought forward for the prosecution, or if it was his desire to do so at the termination of the defence?"

"Sir Charles said that his intention was to avail himself of the right which he had reserved for himself to call fresh evidence, but not till the defence was closed." The President then ordered the defence to proceed, and said that when that *was concluded* the court *would consider* Sir Charles's proposition."

I have the honour to be, Mr. Editor,
Your very obedient servant,
AN OLD SOLDIER.

Infantry Drill.

MR. EDITOR,—It is understood to be by no means improbable that the infantry tactics on instructions for drill, &c. may be soon revised; and it is much to be hoped that practical officers, those who daily see the present system in practice, and who are thereby the best possible judges of the weak points in the detail of the existing regulations, may be selected and consulted in the compilation of whatever new book is proposed to succeed that which was published some years since for the use of the Army, by Sir Henry Torrens.

We have at present so many authorised modes of doing the same thing, that it is quite astonishing how the common soldiers can be brought to recollect them; and it is most obvious that the less to be acquired, the less time is required for such acquirement, and that therefore recruits are sooner adapted for the ranks when there is little to learn than when there is much. In this letter, I merely have to refer to a variety of modes in practice, and all under authority, of marching divisions to a flank. Is it necessary that such division should be instructed to move by *threes* and also by *fours?* The "tellings off," as they are termed, for these formations are numerous and perplexing, and their *mode* of formation is not the most simple; for instance, a soldier standing in our ranks as the flank man of a subdivision has to remember as follows: that he is the left hand man of the right subdivision of *such* a company, which company is a right or a left company, and which company is in the right or in the left wing; that he is, farther, the left hand man of the second section; that he is a *left* file in forming four deep; that he is No. 3 file, perchance, in forming threes; No. — for piling arms; and that as each of the above he is to act in a prescribed and differ-

ent manner; and that in almost all the manœuvres of his battalion, his business is varied beyond the necessity of present explanation. As there is no situation of which I am aware in which a soldier is placed, in which all that is required to be done by *threes* cannot be done by *fours*, it is much to be hoped that the former may be abolished. The latter is a simpler formation, is avoidable for route marching on narrow roads, for deployments, and for all the flank movements of divisions, and is capable of being changed into file-marchingw henever situation or circumstances require. I farther hope, that whoever takes in hand the revision of our tactics, will also well consider the expediency of expunging from our regulations the *oblique step*, and that the method of reducing the front of a column may be also considered; that the expediency of "rear deployments" may be examined, and that a more soldierlike mode of retiring from the centre of a line in double column of subdivisions may be substituted. Farther, that the instructions in regard to light infantry may be made less meagre, and that those respecting the "line movements" of large bodies be rendered more clear.

I am, Sir, yours, &c. Q.

Formation by Threes and Fours—Great Coats.

Mr. Editor,—In your Journal for April, "A Soldier" hints that the present system of four deep is about to undergo a change, and suggests an improvement on that formation. Permit me to offer a few remarks on the same subject. I have no doubt but many officers who have studied the book, have long ago expected a revision of "Torrens," which is certainly not so perfect or faultless as it ought to be. For example, the words of command are in many instances inapplicable, and too long, and principle frequently departed from, but I will confine myself in the present case to the formation of threes and fours.

I propose the following alterations for consideration:

Threes—1st. In the formation of threes, that on the word "threes," three deep should be formed as at present by the rear-rank-man of file number two taking one step to the rear with his left foot, and one side step to the right, the whole of file number three doing the same thing at the same moment.

Right or left, or about or rear—On this word the threes form to the hand required; this saves the long word of command "*rear form three deep, march.*"

The same to be adopted in the formation of "fours"—viz. "fours" "right" or "left," or "about," &c. instead of right form four deep, march, &c. &c.

In the formation of fours to the rear, it is particularly desirable that the principle, upon which I propose these formations should hinge, be adopted—viz. That formations of threes or fours should be made *before* facing, and not *after* facing, as at present.

It is not improbable, that Para. 2, page 44, may be erroneously printed, for the transposition of a few words would not only assimilate the formation of fours to the rear to that of threes to the rear, but would correct what is an obvious mistake, viz. that of giving the left files different positions in the same formation; and the principle of always dressing up, and never dressing back, would be preserved. Thus—

Para. 2, page 44. "On the same caution, the rear-rank will step back as before, and on the word march, the whole go to the right about, and the left files will then double as before, behind the right files."

This places the left files *behind* the right files, when faced about, instead of being in front of them; they should have but one situation, viz. that which they take in forming four deep to the front. It also obliges the left files on the word front, or halt, front (supposing the line to be retiring) to

dress back into their proper places, instead of dressing up as they ought to do, and which they would do, if the formation took place before facing about.

The Para. to correct this mistake, should run thus:—On the same caution, the rear-rank will step back as before, and on the word march the left files will double as before, behind the right files, and the whole then go to the right about.

Whilst on the subject, permit me to say a few words on the present mode of carrying the great-coat. By existing regulations, there is a difference between "heavy marching order parade," and "the line of march." Why should this be?

The mode of carrying the great-coat on "*line of march*," is objectionable for many reasons:—

1st, Because the rolling is difficult and tedious.

2nd, Because, as every officer of experience knows it destroys the coat, owing to the use of sharp sticks or knives, which the soldiers use to tuck in the folds to render them smooth and uniform.

3rd, Because it does not better divide the weight of the men's baggage, but on the contrary, impedes the motion of his head, and makes him heated by stopping the circulation of the air.

4th, Because its position on the top of the pack, with the mess-tin as ordered, impedes materially the exercise and firing of the men. And why should a soldier be placed in any situation, or be so equipped, as under any circumstances to meet impediment in the performance of any part of his duty?

I venture to propose that the third mode of carrying the great-coat be abolished.

I am, yours, &c.

R. R.

Brevet Rank in the Navy.

Mr. Editor,—At a period when promotion has become almost a forlorn-hope in the Navy, I would, through the medium of your widely-circulated Journal, suggest, as a means of giving some satisfaction to the numerous claimants of all ranks, that a brevet promotion be occasionally resorted to, whereby rank, without an increase of half-pay, might be obtained. Without enlarging upon the necessity, so universally acknowledged, of some such boon being held out to officers who may distinguish themselves by acts of prowess, or who may have rendered other important services to the country, I shall briefly explain the mode in which this object might be accomplished. And *first*, as respects Mates, whose claims may have been freely admitted, but from whom, by the present restriction, promotion is unavoidably withheld, I should recommend that all such, or a portion of them, be appointed Brevet Lieutenants without half-pay, having the option of serving as Mates until they can be removed by *seniority* to the permanent list of Lieutenants as vacancies occur; *secondly*, that Lieutenants, under similar circumstances, should receive the brevet rank of Commanders, with the half-pay of Lieutenants only, until they can be removed in like manner to the effective list of Commanders; and, *thirdly*, that Commanders, similarly situated, should receive the brevet rank of Captains, the names of all such brevet officers to appear on published lists, and to be removed as vacancies occur under the existing regulation of one for every three deaths, by seniority alone. This could only interfere, in a very slight degree, with the private patronage of the Admiralty (which must to a certain extent exist) by confining the exercise of such patronage to bestowing brevet rank to their friends, who would, nevertheless, rise progressively and be removed in due time to the established lists by seniority. Should some such plan as this be adopted, it would give satisfaction to many, without putting the country to *one farthing's* expense; and I can see no sound reason why the senior captain, entitled, agreeably to his late Majesty's order in council of

30th June 1827, to promotion, should not *immediately* on the removal by death of three admirals receive his flag, and thus keep the wheel revolving slowly instead of gazetting a batch once in five or more years.

Hoping that some more able correspondent may take up this subject, as well as that of the recent change of uniform, blue coats, red collars, white cuffs (ominous tricolour), as well as explain the apparent inconsistency of granting the rank and privileges of a field-officer to secretaries, whose appointments are only triennial, and which have frequently been given to clergymen, merchants, and often to clerks, and who are thus distinguished *in toto* from the military secretary, who is always a commissioned officer.

I remain, Sir, your constant reader,

Leith, 9th April 1832. PREFECTUS.

P.S. There is not the slightest intention, in offering the above remarks touching secretaries, to speak of the honourable gentlemen filling such confidential situations disrespectfully; I only allude to the anomaly of granting such high military rank to a civilian without his passing through the minor grades.—P.

Seniors and Juniors.

MR. EDITOR,—I trust you will allow me to trespass a little on your columns, for the purpose of thanking your venerable correspondent Priam, for the instruction and amendment which I hope to derive from his severe, though doubtless well-meant strictures on young officers, in your March Number. Distinguished as that article is for justice in mercy, I think he has allowed himself to fall into some errors, which I have no doubt he will hasten to acknowledge when I have pointed them out. As he gives us some hopes of a second epistle, it is the more necessary to put him on his guard against a repetition of the indiscretions of the first, and I doubt not he will feel grateful to me for the suggestions I am about to offer. He uses these words:—"these officers, for I cannot call them gentlemen." Now I cannot agree with him in separating the character of a gentleman from that of an officer. An officer is considered a gentleman by his comrades; is expelled the services if he acts unlike a gentleman; is treated as one by the gentry and nobility of his country; and to crown all, is acknowledged to be a gentleman in a document signed by the King in person. If a young man joins his regiment somewhat unpolished, as many do, it is to be expected that the older officers will gradually civilize him, both by wholesome advice and by showing him an example worthy of imitation. We can judge of Priam's skill in giving advice by the example we have before us, but I can hardly think that the service would be much benefited by his example, were the juniors to follow it, and employ their leisure hours in commemorating the gluttony, ignorance, selfishness, and discontent, which may occasionally be found among old officers, faults to some or other of which most men are more or less subject in old age, and from which old soldiers are, of course, not exempt, any more than young soldiers are from the natural failings of youth; nor would the harmony for which he lauds his *Spartan* regiment long exist, if officers contracted a habit of informing the public, through the medium of a Journal of extensive circulation, that a large portion of their brother officers were not, in their opinion, gentlemen, and that their mess was like a herd of swine. That that harmony still flourishes, notwithstanding the degeneracy of the times and the familiarity of the ensigns, is pretty clearly proved by the rare occurrence of duels or serious quarrels between officers; and any one who will take the trouble of looking at the general court-martials for the last fifteen years, and comparing them with those of the fifteen preceding, will see that the *morale* of the corps of officers is fully as good now as then; indeed, it is notorious to every one but Priam, that it is better in point of gentlemanly feeling.

But the absence of gentility is evidently not Priam's principal grievance, for he touches upon it so lightly, as to seem hardly to care for it, compared with another and more serious crime on the part of the subalterns.

They call their seniors by their surnames alone! Now I believe in most regiments the field-officers enjoy the handles to their names, so that this dreadful defect in discipline, which has so affected Priam's sensitive heart, is not that boys disobey the commands of their superiors, or arrogantly and noisily support their own ignorant opinions on points of service against the matured judgment of veterans, but simply this, that a subaltern who, perhaps, for the next dozen years may live in the same house, dine at the same table, share the same tent, the bee of the same hedge, the toughness of the same ration, the glory of the same victory, and, perhaps, even the tender mercies of the same bunch of grape, with his captain, presumes to address him by his surname. Oh doleful, dreadful thing!

Says Fusbos, in Bombastes Furioso, "Is it the mulligrubs affects the King?" And what are the ill effects of this familiarity? It is well known that it exists to the greater degree in those regiments that are most aristocratically officered; and it is also well known that in interior economy, discipline, and good conduct in or out of the field, those regiments yield to none in Christendom. I should pity Priam dining at a mess of that description, where the youngsters are encouraged to contribute their quota to the general conviviality, where the conversation, joined in by all, turns on such unprofitable subjects as literature, politics, sporting, &c.; where subalterns, unawed by the presence of their seniors, venture, with unblushing fronts, to cut jokes which fall most irreverently on the heads of the captains, and from which even the august persons of the field-officers are not always sacred. How his breast would swell with virtuous indignation at the turbulent burst of laughter that greets the successful witticism of "only an ensign;" and how high would be his contempt for the puerile good humour with which the veterans smile at the thoughtless gaiety of the recruits, while he contrasts their indecent assurance with the freezing ceremony, not to say servility, which he would like to introduce at messes, and which I trust has left them, never to return.

Swearing in a novel and uncouth manner is certainly highly reprehensible. Their shibboleth, "God d—n," is the birthright of Englishmen, of which they may be justly proud; and it is unquestionably irreligious and un-English to introduce any new mode of swearing, especially an uncouth mode: that, however, as well as indecent language, could easily be remedied by the president of the mess. But Priam's friends, it appears, are not content with talking, but some of them "act in a manner truly disgusting;" I suppose perform in the mess-room those things which are not to be described there. Now words are air, and every one knows that in a society of men, of whatever age, or as Priam would say, whether seniors or juniors, an oath will occasionally slip out, and remarks will be made not altogether fitted for the ears of ladies; but when Priam affirms that acts of a disgusting nature take place in mess-rooms, I must beg leave to protest against an assertion calculated to fix upon the army a character it by no means deserves. I do not pretend to dispute the fact of his having been present at scenes of a disgusting nature, but with that exception, I believe I may safely say, that they never occur in mess-rooms; and I am sure that Priam will, upon consideration, admit that the better course for him to have pursued, would have been to have reported them to his commanding officer, than to have libelled the body of young officers in the pages of a Professional Publication. When Priam next mixes with the herd of swine, to which he is pleased to liken his mess, I hope he will approach it in a different temper from that which appears to have animated him when he took up his pen. The lines of Horace—

> "—— Edisti satis atque bibisti;
> Tempus abire tibi est: ne potum largiùs æquo
> Rideat, et pulset lasciva decentiùs ætas,"

—ought never to be applied to a British officer; and scribbling, petulant complaints of the natural and pardonable errors of youth, is an unworthy occupation for the hands that have written their own deathless history in the blood of every country they have visited as enemies. Priam may rest assured that when the trumpet of war again sounds, the banners of England will not be less forward than heretofore, even though they will be carried by ensigns who address their captains without saying "Sir," and who breakfast in dressing-gowns. JUVENIS.

A Voice from before the Mast.

MR. EDITOR,—I beg leave to offer a few remarks on the present mode of manning the British navy. I would suggest that impressment be abolished, and an inducement held out in the way of bounty; and in case of long and faithful service, a boon should be preserved for them, such as an appointment in some Government office, say excise, customs, post-office, stamps, or such as the individual might be qualified for; this would be a saving to the State, inasmuch as the men so appointed would not receive any remuneration for their services in the navy, and would operate with good effect; indeed, young men would be anxious to enter and serve diligently, in hopes of being rewarded. Another point I must here refer to, that of corporal punishment; it is argued by many naval commanders that it cannot be dispensed with. I speak in the language of one who has been subject to its infliction, and in so doing, I am sure I speak the language of seamen generally, that the fear of being flogged or started for every trifling thing that might occur, has prevented merchant-seamen from entering the British navy; and I positively assert, I never heard any one man who had been punished with a cat, but would say he hoped never to be punished again. Some I have heard say, the first land they touched they would run, and if taken they would rather suffer at the yard-arm than be tortured and degraded again. Reason will tell you that no man in his senses would run and leave two or three years' hard-earned pay behind, if it was not for fear of the torture—And where did these men generally go? The answer will be, in most cases, to America. The consequence was, our captains were obliged to resort to impressment to supply their places. I have seen hundreds of men flogged, and in most cases the men became sullen and spirit-broken, regardless of what might happen; and when they get on shore, they feel they have been degraded as men, and instill into others the same feelings. This has been one great cause of our navy wanting men, and their being obliged to press to supply the deficiency.

I am, Sir, a regular subscriber, and late a seaman on board a line-of-battle ship in the following engagements:—Trafalgar, 1805; the taking four frigates from Rochfort, 1806; Basque Roads, 1809; Walcheren, 1809; and skirmishes. If you think this statement worthy of a place in your next Journal, your will much oblige, Your obedient servant,

92, Goswell-street, April 19, 1832. WM. ROBINSON.

Medals for Service.

MR. EDITOR,—I am induced to address you in consequence of seeing a letter in the United Service Journal (for March, page 395), signed "A one-armed Commander," on the subject of medals to be worn by officers as badges of distinction for services performed against the enemy during the late war. I will endeavour to describe a Spanish silver medal, now lying before me. On one side is the "*royal arms of Spain,*"—on the reverse, neatly engraved, the words "*William Vickars, R.N. Bagur, 10th de Septembre—Patamos, 14th de Septembre,* 1810." What could be more gratifying to William Vickars, whoever he may have been? And what could possibly be a better copy, if His Majesty will suffer his old and attached officers to wear

a bit of silver on their left breast, bearing his portrait as Admiral of the Fleet, or a crown, or the royal arms on one side—and on the other the names of the different actions the wearer has been in recorded—his name and rank round its edge? I think the artillery bore the names of the different actions they had been engaged in on their caps (if they do not now) when I was in active service. Why should such a cheap gratification be withheld from a portion of the service equally deserving—every regiment bears record of its feats in arms on its colours. A medal, it cannot be doubted, is best adapted to record the exploits of a naval officer or seamen; that above described is about the size of a Waterloo. I believe I could pretty well fill its reverse, but if long withheld it will never be *my* fortune to *wear it*, being a sad invalid. I beg to subscribe myself, as one of your numerous readers,

A Loyal Subject to his Sovereign and
A Naval Lieutenant of twenty years standing.

I believe every Lascar that was employed at Ava wears a medal.

Grantham, 8th April 1832.

On a Badge of Merit as a Public Testimony of Honourable Service.

"*Honour* is public property, and public property is given to the public benefactor."
Aristotle.

Mr. Editor,—It appears strange to all who have ever given the subject a due consideration, that in all our improvements in public service, there should have been no advance made towards exciting a proper degree of emulation in the breasts of those who are members of the Navy and Army of Great Britain.

I say no advance, for there cannot be brought forward as a contradiction to this, the comparatively small number of individuals upon whom the Order of the Bath and Field-officer decorations have been bestowed, especially considering that these honorary rewards cannot reach officers of the junior ranks, to the exertions of whom it would only require a perusal of your pages to be able to give due credit; but wonderful to relate, it is only in one solitary instance, that of the concluding field in 1815, that there has been any general mark or notice bestowed on such humbler efforts.

The public national spirit must be kept up in the military bodies of a country, and the reward of their exertions, as it is chiefly honorary, ever before them. In the pursuit of *Honour* every encouragement should be held out, for—

> "In woods, *in waves*, *in wars*, *she* wonts to dwell,
> And will be found with perill and with paine:
> Ne can the man that moulds in idle cell,
> To her happy mansion e'er attaine."

Such, Sir, being the path and duty of the follower of arms, is it not to be wondered at, that the retired worn-out follower has, in his latter days, but seldom aught to show or hand down to his children?

The garb of a soldier thus decorated, would be something more than the livery of his Sovereign; and though a distinction comprehending so many—as, according to my idea, twenty years' service in the individual, or fifteen if ever engaged with the enemy actually under fire, should be enough to entitle the officer or soldier to wear a badge or cross of gold, suspended by a narrow ribbon, alternate red and blue, allowing for the naval officer fifteen years and twelve years in place of the former periods—although this might include so many, yet take away twenty or fifteen years, including some which have been passed in any thing but in carpet luxuries, and see what remains for the wearer of such distinction, especially if a wound or a climate injury be the result of such a pursuit of the gay vision.

If the price of such badge, being gold for the officer, and silver for the soldier or sailor, were charged to the individual, it would be a measure

entailing no charge on the country, but much satisfaction, I feel confident, among individuals engaged in the naval and military profession.

I am, Mr. Editor, your's respectfully,

A RETIRED SOLDIER.

Among benefits to be derived after long services, Mr. Editor, is it not surely one to be highly prized by officers' families of the United Services, that of having means of providing, in cases of distress, for Orphans? yet the Female Adult Orphan Asylum has few naval or military subscribers.

Cavendish.

MR. EDITOR,—Perfectly satisfied as I am with your spirited review of Cavendish, I think it but right to let you know a mistake you have made. Your quotation is,—"As to the alleged foolery of Capt. Spencer picking up rope-yarns for watch-strings, we know enough of him to doubt whether his quarter-deck would have furnished the supply, or that a ship he commanded could exhibit such a scene as the lieutenant of the watch asleep, the mids skulking, the look-outs drunk, the man at the helm foolish, and the old quarter-master blind." That attack is made on His Majesty's ship Surinam, Capt. Botherby; if you think it worth while to refer to his pages again, you will find I am correct.

Concerning another part of his story, which relates to the Undoubted frigate, as he calls her: I belonged to that ship at the time he refers to, and can answer for the whole of what he asserts being false; no stranger was present at the dinner we gave to our highly-respected Captain at parting; and another thing, having known Lord F. Hussell some time, I assert, he has too much good feeling to insult anybody, much more a stranger who asks him (by Cavendish's account) a few questions. The whole story is unfounded on fact, and the writer, in all probability, will be outwitted, for it is more than likely that the Dukè of Newcastle and Sir C. Wetherall will leave this world without ever knowing that such a man as Mr. Patrician ever lived, or wrote about them. I myself think Mr. Patrician the spurious offspring of some gentleman's servant, who got into the navy in the second class, and was turned out of it for his bad conduct. That he is a nobleman or gentleman, or even a commonly decent person, the stories he puts in his book prevents your believing; for what person, with any pretension to that character, would put in print such low, blackguardly stories as he has of the Duke of Wellington and others? Hoping you will insert this,

I am Sir, your constant reader and subcriber,

———— A LIEUTENANT R.N.

Services of the late Admiral Freeman and Lord Henry Paulet.

MR. EDITOR,—In the memoir of the services of the late Admiral of the Fleet, William Peere Williams Freeman, you state, "His next appointment was to the Prince George, 98, with the fleet under the orders of Sir Samuel Hood," &c. &c. The Capt. Williams who commanded the Prince George was not the late Admiral of the Fleet, nor did he command any ship after he left the Flora till he commissioned the Zealous, at Chatham, in Nov. 1793, and was promoted, before she was ready for sea, to the rank of Rear-Admiral in April 1794, but never hoisted his flag.

In the memoir of the services of the late Vice-Admiral Lord Henry Paulet you state, "He was sent out to India on promotion, and appointed a Lieutenant into the Vulcan in 1791," &c. &c. He was made junior Lieutenant into the Crown at Spithead, when Commodore Cornwallis hoisted his broad pendant in that ship to go to India early in February 1789. When the squadron arrived at Teneriffe, he was removed into the Phœnix, in the room of Lieut. Edward Oliver Osborne, who was taken into the Crown; and shortly after his arrival in India, finding he was not to be taken back into the Crown, he was invalided, and took his passage to England in the Houghton East Indiaman. I am, Sir, your obedient, humble servant,

Southampton, 6thApril 1832. I. G.

CONSOLATIONS OF AN OPTIMIST.

We have considered it right to resume the original resolution with which we set out, to avoid all discussion on particular points of politics, or to meddle with purely party questions. This restriction however, does not of course prevent us from attending to those broad and philosophical considerations which affect the happiness of this country, and as we chance to be sincere and thorough-going optimists ourselves, we feel naturally desirous to inspire similar feelings in the breast of our readers, and especially of our brethren in both the martial professions. Indeed, we have long been of opinion, that there are few duties more binding on the officers of our happily United Service, than the determination to make the most of every thing—and always to think—to feel—and to say that all will turn out right in the end. Soldiers and sailors, in fact, ought to be living "Candides," and to exclaim under the bitterest calamities that "all must be for the best!" But as we are not yet such complete devotees as this degree of faith implies, we think it may not be amiss to show the solid grounds—or what we take to be the solid grounds—on which we rest our belief.

Our confidence in the stability of the British Constitution in church and state, and in all else which it contains that is good and great, is quite incapable of change, for it resembles the religious faith of a true Christian; and this comparison, as we shall endeavour to show, is not an indecent or improper one, since they are both founded on the very same basis. A sound religious faith, we must always recollect, is not in the smallest degree weakened, in right minds, by the severest reverses of fortune; on the contrary, it ought to be, and indeed generally is, exalted by temporary calamity; and the occurrence of misfortunes and crosses apparently in the very teeth of all justice and reason. The generous, the just, the temperate, the pious and the brave, shall be visited, to appearance, with more calamities than the profligate and irreligious; but we ask, of what is that faith worth which will not stand up against these trials? If then it can be shown that our political confidence is similarly founded, we ask, with no less confidence, why are we to relinquish our hopes in it, merely because for our political sins we may happen to be politically chastised for a season.

It may be inquired what we mean by our religious and political faith being similarly founded? and this leads us to explain the source of our optimism with respect to England,—and to England alone, we beg it may be constantly kept in mind, of all the countries in the world, with which we have any personal acquaintance. England is the only country, so far as we know, that may be called essentially, that is to say, heartily and practically a religious country, and one where, in consequence, as we fully believe, good faith between man and man in all the ordinary dealings of life, both public and domestic, is the general rule of action. Were any circumstance to shake our conviction of this being the case, we mean of this country being truly and sincerely a religious one, then, but not till then, our political optimism might begin to shake likewise. Nothing, however, that we have seen, or heard, or read about of late, bad as many symptoms have been, has changed our opinions on this vital point, and therefore we cannot

bring ourselves to feel alarm as to the issue of these threatened changes in the structure of our body politics. Our belief is, that, generally speaking, over the whole of England the wise and the good, the best informed and the ablest men, have always in the long run possessed the real power of directing affairs, and that however much in a village, a city, or even in a government, selfish and turbulent or discontented men, despisers of the long-tried institutions of their country, careless-hearted, individually, in respect to religion, and sincerely hating the church establishment, may gain the ascendancy for a time, yet that it is not in the nature of things, in a community constituted as ours is, that such persons should have it in their power to do any permanent mischief, or to direct affairs long.

We should certainly call it a great permanent mischief, if such wicked, ignorant, or unpatriotic persons could essentially alter the character and sentiments of the population of the country, break down their church, root out their religion, or change their characteristic good faith into mere mercenary trickery.

But in the first place, with respect to the church establishment, let us consider on what, politically speaking, it rests? Not surely on the wealth of its endowments, nor even on the education, the talents, or the zeal of its ministers, as many people are apt at times to fancy, but essentially on the indestructible soundness of its doctrines, and the real excellence of its purposes, together with the practical, and deep-seated advantages which it confers daily and hourly upon human society. Nevertheless, all these immense advantages are not enough, to give even such a church establishment a permanent root in the country. There must be superadded the religious opinions and sentiments, that is to say, the real convictions of the great mass of the reflecting and influential portion of the people, who, we firmly believe, cordially cherish the church establishment on account of its being, in their opinion, necessary to the very existence of the national religion in its purity. Unless it be thus sustained, no possible ingenuity, nor any exercise of human power, can ever hope to preserve such a curious and admirable fabric as our Government in Church and State.

If things in England really be as we suppose, and there is in point of fact a general and sincere religious feeling pervading the great mass of English society, (we care little by what denominations the sects of religious men amongst us be distinguished,) then it strikes us, that we do the country great injustice in supposing they will tamely allow those institutions by which their best hopes are secured to be rudely torn down. If they do, then all we can say is, their religion hangs more loosely about them than we had supposed it did, and they are not worthy of their institutions and the great good which flows from them. But we hope for far better things, and confess we never hear a true-hearted friend to the long-tried institutions of this country express apprehension about the church establishment, that we do not feel something of the same displeasure, and almost humiliation, with which we should listen to a person expressing doubts as to the solidity of the Christian doctrine. And when we hear clergymen expressing such alarms for the stability of church affairs, we feel pretty much, as we should do, were we to hear military or naval officers betraying doubts as to their capacity for beating the French again when the war shall break out.

At the same time, it would give us some cause of uneasiness, were

we not to see very general alarm excited throughout the country, when so many valuable interests are supposed to be at stake. Out of this alarm will, undoubtedly, spring the determination to defend what is valuable in the system, and the requisite combinations to give that determination effect. How it will operate, we mean what will be the details, we know not; we do not pretend to be prophets, nor do we predict more minutely for the British Constitution, than we do for the course of other affairs; but we merely predict that right reason must sooner or later prevail in such a society as ours, where, as we firmly believe, religious sentiment exists fully as much as ever it did; and where good faith is still the general rule—subterfuge and trickery the exception; and where talents, information, good sense, and virtuous conduct do still, in point of practice, acquire and preserve their ascendency in all things as heretofore, and where the distinctions of rank are not only really and truly acknowledged, but in spite of all this vulgar outcry, are virtually acted upon throughout the land.

If all these things have existed before, and have made their influence felt in times past, why should they cease to do so now, just at the moment they are most required? It is said that men who really wish for changes in the constitution have got into high stations of command, and that their power is now so great that they will subvert the institutions of the country. Yes, certainly, if they can first subvert the character of its inhabitants. But are our principles, moral and religious, so easy of change? Is our good faith so readily altered to cunning selfishness? Is our confidence in long-tried talents and knowledge and judicious conduct so slight that we will exchange it for reliance on mere pretensions to capacity? Are the general and all-pervading advantages and pleasures which spring from the distinctions of rank, so purely imaginary, as to be given up at the dictation of mere theoretical equalizers? Are the tens of thousands of old habits, to which we have been so long wedded, capable of such immediate flexure as is supposed?—or are the ten million millions of deeply-rooted interests amongst us and all the venerable prejudices of this land to be plucked up and replanted, as you would transfer so many cabbages? "Certainly not," it may be answered; "but then," it may perhaps be added, "the people are blind to their own true interests; they are easily led by the nose; they are always subject to enthusiasm; they see not before them, they know not what they do, and consequently they yield to their own vulgar impulses, or to the eqally vulgar, but more adroit eloquence of some plausible demagogue, who prompts them to believe that change is for their good, and when it is all too late they repent and have nothing left but to curse their misleaders."

To this we might reply, that the people of this country will do no such thing; they have not so acted in worse times than the present, and they will not so act now at the dictation of any man or set of men. In France, indeed, this is just what does happen: the Mirabeau of the day first rouses the people, and then fancies, good easy man, that he can regulate the course of the conflagration, or that having pulled the trigger he can direct the discharge so as to strike only the evils he wishes to remedy. The piece, however, is sure to burst in his hands, and all the satisfaction we have, is to know that he himself is blown to pieces along with the rest. In this country our metal is more true:

there is, luckily, no bursting with us, though there be plenty of explosions; and all the influence of infinitely more able men than any who have yet risen to power amongst us, and who have ever endeavoured to unsettle us, as it has availed nothing in times gone by, will avail nothing at the present hour. To suppose the contrary is to believe that we, like the French, are without the substance of private and of political virtue, and that our institutions are the essentials, and not, as they really are, the mere accessories or frame-work of our prosperity. This machinery has no sort of virtue in itself to impart the principle of vitality to a state, any more than a set of wheels are capable of imparting motion to a carriage; and here is the grand mistake of the French, and so many other nations. They imagine that free institutions and ingenious codes of laws will beget freedom and establish the rights of persons and property. No doubt, institutions help most materially to preserve these great blessings, as the wheels we spoke of enable the carriage to advance. But if a nation possess in itself the true principles of political strength and freedom, and if it be virtuous and religious, in the solid senses of these words, it need not fear that it will be tried beyond its strength. It is as contrary to sound reason to suppose that the designs of a few selfish men, or even of a few mistaken though public-spirited men, shall be able to injure this country permanently, as that the same number of persons elsewhere shall be able to give strength and freedom to an enslaved, ignorant, or vicious country. None but the wildest dreamers on such matters imagine that any possible set of institutions would impart true freedom to the Turks; but, in our opinion, it is a dream quite as wild to suppose that if we are only true to ourselves, the freedom, strength, and virtue of England, are capable of being overturned, or even, in any material degree, injured.

For a time the people of this country are often led to the wrong side; they may be seduced to listen to demagogues, and prompted to shout for change, but this does not last long; and though it be proverbially more easy to go down to Avernus, than to retrace the upward steps, there is no reason to imagine that in this country any sudden mischief, any more than any sudden good, can ever be done. Measures may be adopted, we grant, which shall have the effect in time of sapping our foundations, and eventually of bringing down the whole edifice; but this, we conceive, cannot happen if the true-hearted men in the country are even moderately faithful and courageous—and as we have not the smallest doubt that they will be much more than moderately energetic when it comes fairly to the push, we confess, our optimism, so far from waning, only increases, for we foresee out of these very troubles a real accession of political strength to the genuine conservative cause, and a firmer clenching of the rivets which bind the state together. That the names of many things will be altered, we think probable, and that very considerable injustice will be perpetrated, and considerable practical evils may arise from these changes, is very possible; but that all things in public life will readjust themselves, we have no more doubt than we have that private good sense and virtuous conduct will always sooner or later gain the day in this country. We again, and again, however, beg it may be recollected, that our political optimism relates to England only, because it is here alone that talents and sound principles have their due weight in the eventual regulation of every thing.

A NARRATIVE OF THE WARFARE IN THE WESTERN ISLANDS, UP TO THE ASSEMBLING OF THE PRESENT EXPEDITION.

BY AN EYE WITNESS.

[While we are happy to record, upon competent authority, the actual incidents detailed in this Narrative, we must guard ourselves, as neutrals, from identification with the political bias of the gallant writer.—Ed.]

When Don Miguel abolished the constitution of Portugal, the garrisons of the Azores, with the exception of Terceira, declared for him. The inhabitants took little or no part in this movement; and it is remarkable that this island, perhaps destined to be the cradle of regenerated Portugal, where the troops remained faithful to the Queen, were more attached to Don Miguel than the others, who, generally speaking, leaned to Donna Maria and the constitution.

The Portuguese refugees from Plymouth, it is well known, made an attempt to land at Terceira, and when in sight of their own port, and expecting to meet their friends and relations, were driven off by a British squadron sent for that purpose by the existing Administration. Under these circumstances they decided on not again putting themselves under English protection, and proceeded to Brest, where they were kindly received by the French Government, who supplied them with funds that enabled them to proceed in small parties to Terceira, where they joined their means to those of the garrison, and endeavoured to make their position tenable.

In the summer of 1829 an expedition was fitted out at St. Michael's against this last citadel of Portuguese independence, under the orders of the Captain-General Prega, consisting of two sail-of-the-line, several frigates, corvettes, and between two and three thousand troops; a descent was attempted in Praga Bay, but they were repulsed with great slaughter by a gallant band, headed by Count Villa Flor, who arrived a few days before, preferring poverty and honourable retirement at Terceira to the enjoyment of his estates under the actual ruler of Portugal. Count Palmella came over shortly after,—a Regency was established, and the island, which is strong by nature, was put in a most respectable state of defence. After the discomfiture of Don Miguel's expedition the greater part of the squadron returned to Lisbon, leaving a few ships to blockade the island. These vessels soon became a greater annoyance to French and British commerce than to the Terceireans; who continued to receive supplies from their friends in France and England without much difficulty. Portuguese constitutionalists flocked to their standard, and this little army soon became formidable to the neighbouring islands. It is necessary to see the works established at Terceira, to be able to appreciate sufficiently the perseverance of this little band, serving almost without pay, the officers contenting themselves with the rations of the soldiers, and still bearing a most respectable appearance. The Regency showed a noble example and lived with the greatest frugality, and nothing could be more delightful than the happiness and contentment that reigned in this little state; their cause was good, and they looked forward to better

days. Many of the principal inhabitants gave up the revenue of their estates for the support of the cause, and became soldiers, and as it was impossible to make them all officers, they joined a corps that had been formed of noblemen and gentlemen, composed of the best blood of Portugal, many of whom had been students at Coimbra, and were obliged to leave their homes in consequence of the opposition they made to Don Miguel.

In the spring of 1830, the aggressions against British commerce became so outrageous, that the Briton and Undaunted frigates were sent off to the Western Islands, and the Galatea was despatched to Lisbon to obtain redress for the capture of British vessels which had been sent into that port. Abundance of apologies were offered to the Consul-General and promises of satisfaction, which, however, was limited to the release of the vessels and the dismissal of the captain of the Diana. The papers of the captured ships were detained on various pretexts, and no indemnity was given for their seizure. On the accession of the present administration the Briton was sent with a squadron, which, under a threat of blockading the Tagus, obtained the required satisfaction.

These disputes with our Government, and subsequently more serious ones with the French, encouraged the Regency of Terceira, whose resources were nearly at an end, and who found it absolutely necessary for their very existence to extend their dominion over the other islands, to fit out an expedition against Fayale, which had been left for some time without a protecting squadron. Three small armed vessels were procured, and several English schooners hired for the conveyance of troops, and early in June they arrived off Fayale. Light winds and strong currents unfortunately swept them through the channel of Pico, and prevented the British and American Consuls, who were requested by the Governor to treat for the surrender of the island, from communicating with Count Villa Flor, the commander of the expedition. As it was necessary to obtain a footing for their troops and an anchorage for their frail barks, St. George's was attacked and carried after a considerable resistance. The arrival of a Portuguese corvette in Fayale roads aroused the courage of the garrison, which now prepared for a vigorous defence; this was a most unfortunate occurrence for the Terceireans, whose means were small, and doubts were entertained whether they would be able to accomplish the primary object of the expedition; they however found a secure anchorage for their small squadron, during a succession of bad weather, and they had the pleasure of seeing the corvette driven from her anchorage in a gale of wind, and at the same time received intelligence of the capture of another Portuguese corvette by a small French squadron which suddenly appeared in those seas. The weather continuing unfavourable, it was impossible with their small vessels to attack Fayale in the absence of the corvette; they however crossed over to Pico, and established themselves opposite the town, which is about eight miles distant, and there they learned that Don Pedro had touched at Fayale in his way to Europe; this circumstance infused fresh spirits into their little army.

On the information of the intended expedition reaching the Foreign Office, the Galatea was despatched to watch over British interests, and after touching at St. Michael's and Terceira, arrived on the 10th of

June at Fayale, and found the contending parties in the situation described. The anchorage at this island is good, you may either lie close to the town, and ride out all gales with safety, or take up a position at a sufficient distance to slip when necessary, and run out of either passage as most convenient. The town is beautifully situated, the country richly cultivated, and nothing can be more magnificent than the island of Pico opposite, with its extinguished volcano towering above the clouds—the island of St. George also, at some distance, adds to the beauty of the scenery. Pico produces a great quantity of grapes, the wine is brought over to Fayale, where it is prepared, and it takes its name from the latter island. There is a considerable whale fishery amongst the islands, and great numbers of American ships touch at Fayale on their way to the South Seas, and take whales in sufficient quantity to pay for the refreshments the island produces; abundance of vegetables are cultivated for the supply of this demand, which the Americans call their *sauce*.

The arrival of the Galatea was hailed with great joy, not only by the English but by the inhabitants, all of whom were favourable to Donna Maria; and, indeed, some time before the young men of the island had attempted a revolution, and actually possessed themselves of the fort, but want of concert and a leader made them an easy prey to the garrison when they recovered from their first alarm. Fayale is defended by two very respectable batteries, one at each end of the bay, connected together by a sea-wall which extends to the two capes; this renders an attack by boats on that port quite out of the question. Port au Pin, a small harbour to the south-west, is also strong and separated from the bay by a small isthmus which connects a promontory to the main land, and might be made very strong. Praga Bay, on the other side of the cape, is also tolerably well defended.

The garrison consisted of five hundred very disorderly men, and the discipline was so much relaxed that they threatened to abandon the island and pillage the town; the militia was also considerable; assisted by a corvette of twenty-four guns, which returned to the anchorage a few days after the arrival of the Galatea, so far from having any thing to dread they had force enough, if well managed, to attack and destroy the whole expedition at their anchorage. Fortunately for the Terceireans, a good understanding did not subsist between the Captain of the corvette and the Governor; the former was supposed to lean to the opposite party, and endeavoured to keep well with both sides. Application was made to the commander of the Galatea to detain the English vessels said to be serving with the expedition, which he declined on the following grounds:—

1st. There was no authentic information that the vessels employed were English.

2nd. It was not contrary to the law of nations neutrals being hired by a belligerent taking their chance of capture by the opposite party.

3rd. As these vessels were not fitted out in England with the intention of assisting either party, but were simply trading, they did not come under the foreign enlistment bill; and lastly, the Galatea had orders to interfere in no manner whatever with either party.

These orders were rigorously enforced, no officer was allowed to be on shore after sunset, and very little communication was held with the

inhabitants; no intercourse was permitted with Pico, and a boat that came off under the pretence of selling wine, was dismissed forthwith.

The Terceireans made several attempts to gain the captain of the corvette, or to induce him to withdraw, but without effect; both parties seemed to fear each other. The captain of the corvette was afraid of being boarded in the night, or burnt; the Terceireans were apprehensive of being met half channel over and destroyed, and in truth, they had the greater reason to be cautious, as their all depended on this expedition. The Constitutional party at Fayale were most anxious; every morning at daylight the windows were crowded, in hopes of seeing the flotilla, but every morning brought its disappointment. Things remained in this state till the 22nd, when a council of war was held, and it was decided to withdraw the garrison, and conduct them to St. Michael's in the corvette, an American brig, an English and Brazilian schooner, which they hired for that purpose. The same reason that existed for non-interference with English vessels in the name of the Regency, prevented the commander of the Galatea interfering with the hiring of the English schooner for the conveyance of Don Miguel's troops.

The 23rd of July was fixed for the embarkation. The presence of the British frigate, it was hoped, would prevent any irregularity, and also from carrying their threat of plundering the town into execution. At ten o'clock the drums began to beat, the troops were marched in from their several stations, and every thing had the appearance of going off with order and regularity; the Governor, however, very improperly went on board the first, leaving the second in command to superintend the embarkation. At three, the corvette made the signal to weigh before half the troops were embarked, and sent an order to the second in command to embark immediately, with which he very reluctantly complied. At half-past three she weighed, and stood out of the bay with a light breeze, leaving the others to shift for themselves. The troops thus left alone, for the officers followed the second in command, amused themselves by firing in the most wanton manner on the unarmed inhabitants. A young Englishman was mortally wounded; and a shot from an unknown hand, passed close to a window of the Consul's house, where he was standing with the Commander of the Galatea observing the embarkation. This house is some distance from the quay, and this shot was the first intimation that mischief was going on. The firing was supposed at first to be the soldiers discharging their blank cartridge on going off. Intelligence of what was passing at the point of embarkation, was brought to the Consul's shortly after, and things wore a most unpleasant aspect. The Corregidor (who had taken refuge with the Consul, under the apprehension of ill-treatment) was desired to inform the commanding-officer of the militia, that he would be held responsible for any more English blood that might be spilt; this gentleman was nowhere to be found. The Corregidor was then called upon to put himself at the head of the militia, which, after much difficulty, he consented to do if accompanied by several of the Galatea's officers, who were in the Consul's house for its protection. This party sallied out well armed, and proceeded to the Fort, which was close to the point of embarkation; there they found the militia straggling without officers, many soldiers still on

shore, some drunk and few sober. A guard was immediately collected, the militia fell in, the stragglers were secured, and in a few minutes order was restored. Had this measure not been adopted, God knows what might have happened.

The corvette was at this time out of the bay; the American brig, still at anchor, but making every effort to get away; the wind was light, and every appearance of a calm. The man who shot the Englishman was supposed to be on board of her. The Corregidor was pressed to go off and claim him, but in vain. No time was to be lost. An officer accompanied by Mr. Lane, an English merchant, put off in a two-oared boat, and demanded the culprit, giving the commanding officer to understand, the brig would be detained if he was not given up. An immediate search was ordered, but he was nowhere to be found. It was now nearly calm, Villa Flor's troops had pushed off from Pico, and were fast approaching. Apprehension was entertained on board the brig, that they would be boarded and put to the sword; and at the urgent request of Don Miguel's soldiers, an officer was sent to Count Villa Flor, to say they would surrender, and that he trusted there would be no unnecessary effusion of blood. By this time, the commanding officer of militia made his appearance, and having put himself at the head of his men, raised the standard of Donna Maria, which was greeted by the inhabitants with *vivas* a thousand times repeated. Count Villa Flor's troops, consisting of 500 men, now landed in two divisions, one at Praga, and another in the town; and in an incredibly short time they were all disposed of with the greatest order and regularity. There was neither rioting nor drunkenness, nor any excess which might have been expected from the degree of excitement they were under, and in the night occupation of a town. The city was brilliantly illuminated, and the Count and his principal officers were entertained at supper at the British Consul's.

Of the 500 troops which composed Don Miguel's garrison, little more than 100 escaped. The rest were captured in the American brig and Brazilian schooner, and treated with the greatest humanity, and with the exception of the people who were released from prison, amusing themselves in conducting their enemies to the quarter they had just quitted, no reaction took place; and, indeed, it was impossible for officers and men to behave with more regularity than the highly-disciplined troops of the Regency. The men were well clothed and well appointed, and a corps of cadets, composed of the first of the Portuguese youths, showed an example of discipline and good order. Next morning, Donna Maria was proclaimed, and illuminations ordered for three nights. The Galatea saluted her flag, a dinner was given on board to Count Villa Flor and his principal officers, who were received with manned yards, and under a salute; in the evening there was a grand ball on shore, and Fayale resumed its wonted gaiety. The Portuguese officers formed themselves into bands, and in the evening serenaded the principal inhabitants; the only circumstance that damped the general joy, was the death of Mr. Serle, the young man who was shot, and who was a great favourite with the inhabitants of the island. The murderer was fortunately apprehended, tried by a court-martial, and shot a few days after. A garrison of 300 men was left at Fayale, and the rest of the troops returned to

Terceira, to prepare for their expedition against St. Michael's, which they determined to undertake if a sufficient quantity of shipping could be found.

The Galatea left Fayale on the 3rd, and anchored two days after at Angra, the capital of Terceira. The roadstead is not good, and can only be attempted in summer; to ride out a gale would be dangerous, and to slip extremely difficult. The town is well situated, and the country rich in grain; a great quantity of which was exported before it was occupied by the Constitutionalists, who now consumed the greater part of it. Mont Brazil is a high promontory, connected to the main land by a narrow isthmus, which is very well defended, and is inaccessible at all points except the proper landing place; it is capable of containing a number of men, and can maintain many head of cattle. The captain and officers were well received by the Regency, and entertained at dinner. In the evening there was a brilliant collection of as fine young men as ever appeared in any country. The Countess Villa Flor was present, a beautiful and amiable woman; she braved a winter's passage in a small sloop, and in spite of the blockade, joined her husband, and the cause to which she was enthusiastically devoted. Next morning a regiment of caçadores was reviewed, and appeared in excellent order. Officers and men wore long beards, which they had vowed not to shave till the establishment of Donna Maria on the throne of Portugal; after the review a second breakfast was in readiness, and horses to conduct them over the island. Active preparations were making to get the expedition ready before reinforcements could arrive from Portugal, but they were greatly deficient of transports. Orders had been sent to Fayale to hire American whalers, and on that depended their ulterior movements. The troops of the Regency consisted of between four and five thousand men, including a corps of cadets well clothed and disciplined; the men had not been paid for some time, and looked forward to the possession of these islands as a means of obtaining their arrears. There was, however, no discontent amongst the military; the inhabitants, as may be supposed, were anxious to see an end put to the wars in their islands; their contributions were necessarily heavy, and their trade much cut up, having been entirely shut out from Portugal since the rule of Don Miguel. The Galatea quitted Terceira on the 7th, very much gratified with the reception they met with, and leaving their hearty wishes for success behind them, which was all they had to give. On the 8th of July she arrived at St. Michael's, which was in some alarm; the corvette and English schooner had arrived, and the Governor of Fayale was under trial by a court-martial. Exertions were making to put the island in a good posture of defence; the town, which is named Delgada, is well built and tolerably clean; it is defended by two batteries, and the landing is difficult; it would require a couple of frigates to silence them both. Farther to the eastward, between Delgada and Villa Franca, is a fine sandy bay which had been well fortified, and was too strong for the Terceireans to land without an efficient naval force, particularly in face of a corvette of twenty-four guns, strong enough to blow their musquito fleet out of the water. There are few landing-places to the southward, and only one or two very difficult to the eastward. The Cap-

tain-General strengthened every point in the neighbourhood of the town, and neglected the north end of the island, where few troops were stationed, the coast being bold and difficult of access. The garrison consisted of 1500 men, and 2000 militia, with a very fine train of artillery, well clothed, well appointed, and well paid; against this force and a corvette of twenty-four guns, it required considerable enterprise to risk an attack, and few people on the island supposed it would be attempted. Several vessels from England, not finding a freight back, went to Terceira in hopes of being employed, and in point of fact, were taken up by the Regency. A cutter appeared off, occasionally, under Donna Maria's colours, and frequently came within three miles of the corvette, which however never moved. In the night proclamations and letters for various individuals were landed, and the Captain-General, who had hitherto conducted himself with great moderation, urged by the commander of the forces, commenced a severe persecution against all persons suspected to favour the Constitutionalists, and also against those to whom letters or proclamations were addressed, the greater part of which had been intercepted. He also wrote to the commanding officer of the Galatea, accusing him of favouring this correspondence, which however was not the case. The proclamations were in circulation before her arrival, and the only interference with either party was by informing the Captain-General that no English vessels should be taken up, unless security was given for payment; this and the knowledge that the English were favourable to the Terceireans, caused a great coolness with the authorities. The Consul was also particularly obnoxious to the Captain-General, and several attempts had been made to procure his removal, in consequence of some assistance he had given to several Constitutionalists to escape from the island; they had thrown themselves on his mercy, and it was impossible he could have acted otherwise.

The troops were paraded before the Captain-General every morning, and on passing the Consul's house, where the frigate's officers were, a double allowance of Don Miguel's tune, called *fuero mallados*, a name given to the Constitutionalists, was sure to be given. No insults, however, were offered to the English, and parties were formed in the country as if nothing was expected. The idea of Villa Flor attacking St. Michael's was laughed at by the Miguelites, who however kept strengthening all the weak parts near the town; those best informed even doubted whether they would be able to procure a sufficient number of vessels, and the first certain information of their coming, was by a letter from a soldier at Terceira to his wife, a servant at the Consul's, desiring her to get him a good supper by a particular day, as they had procured vessels enough to bring over a sufficient force to ensure success.

On the 23rd of July Mr. Serle, the father of the young man shot at Fayale, touched at St. Michael's from Lisbon, and there learnt the death of his son; he brought the news of the French having forced the Tagus, and there dictated terms to the Portuguese Government. The Consul very naturally communicated this intelligence to the Captain-General, and to the English merchants interested in the Lisbon trade, and was much surprised next morning to see a proclamation

placarded in the town contradicting the whole story, and accusing him and Mr. Serle of having fabricated it to disturb the tranquillity of the island, and holding the English inhabitants up to odium as being inimical to the government. Mr. Reed very properly called upon the Governor to withdraw this, and for an explanation. The only reply he received was, that orders had been given to the Corregidor to commence a summary prosecution against him. On this being represented to the Captain of the Galatea, he waited on the Governor of the island, who was a very good and moderate man, and recommended him to advise the Captain-General to pause, ere he treated the British Consul in the same arbitrary manner he did the Portuguese, as it would lead to angry discussions with him, which had better be avoided in the present state of the island: this hint had the desired effect, and nothing more was heard on the subject.

On the 28th orders arrived for the Consul to proceed to Terceira, and investigate the circumstance of a British vessel having been forced into the service of the Regency and lost; he did not, however, consider it advisable to proceed till it was ascertained positively whether the island was to be attacked or not, and on the 30th of July the Galatea sailed for Terceira for that purpose. On the afternoon of the 1st, half way between the islands, a convoy of thirty-three sail was discovered, consisting of a large merchant ship under French colours, thirteen schooners, and the remainder large sailing-boats, full of troops, under convoy of two small armed schooners, steering towards the north-east end of the island. On the first appearance of the Galatea she was taken for the corvette, and the schooners hauled out from the convoy, it having been determined to carry her by boarding. The Galatea hoisting her colours undeceived them, and they made sail to speak her; as this, however, would have had the appearance of interfering, and if seen from the island might have compromised the English at St. Michael's, she made all sail away and anchored at one in the morning. As no assistance was given to one party, no intelligence was communicated to the other, and fortunately they never came to ask it. The telegraphs had been changed the day before and did not work, and the Captain-General received no information of the convoy being off till seven in the morning. The alarm guns were then fired, and the drums beat to arms—at eight the light troops marched off,—at nine the main body and the militia, after being paraded before the Captain-General and harangued, were put in motion, accompanied by a fine train of artillery, all in high order and apparently in great spirits; the corvette slipped at the same time, but by her manœuvres she did not appear very anxious to disturb them. At ten the Captain-General left the town in his carriage, attended by a numerous staff, and fixed his head-quarters two leagues off. The Governor of the island was posted in the castle with pikemen, and a considerable number were stationed in the town to preserve order; all their dispositions seemed good, with the exception of not leaving a few regular troops in the town who could be depended upon, and this neglect can only be accounted for by the authorities believing to the last that the inhabitants were favourable to Don Miguel's government.

The convoy fell to leeward as far as the Musteros during the night,

and did not get abreast of their landing-place till eight, which was the time the light troops left the city. The place of debarkation was very bad, only one person being able to get up at a time; but it was some distance from Ribiera Grande where a detachment of troops were stationed; and the only resistance they met with was from a priest and a few old men and women rolling down stones; the former was shot and fell over the cliff, and the others were dispersed—a serjeant's party would have effectually prevented their landing. The Count Villa Flor and a few cadets were the first who scrambled up the cliff; by nine their whole force, consisting of 1600 men, including officers and eighty cadets, were on shore, having nothing but their arms; their provisions were even left behind, and with this small force, after recovering from the fatigue of mounting the cliff, they took the road of Ribiera Grande, determined to conquer or die—there was no retreat, and if taken no mercy to be expected. In two hours they fell in with Don Miguel's Caçadores, and after some skirmishing, drove them back with the loss of a field-piece, which was a great acquisition. They bivouacked for the night in the district of Maya, and were well supplied with provisions. At daylight they were again in motion, and after a severe march and a good deal of skirmishing arrived in front of a very strong position taken up by the Commander of Don Miguel's forces between Ribiera Grande and Porto Fermosa; at eleven, their disposition for the attack being completed, they were themselves suddenly assailed on their left flank and rear by a detachment of 500 men, who had crossed from Villa Franca and the Fournes. The Miguelites thought the day their own, and cheered from their position, but stood firm. The Terceireans, no way dismayed, faced about a detachment, routed their assailants, and then attacked the position in front and flank with so much vivacity, that the Miguelite troops were immediately routed and dispersed, leaving six pieces of artillery behind them; the chase lasted till four o'clock. The Miguelites lost between 4 and 500 killed, the Terceireans about fifty. The former brought into the field 1500 regular troops, and nearly 2000 militia, the latter certainly not favourable to their cause, but they were placed in the front, were obliged to fight, and suffered severely; the latter 1600 men.

During the 2nd all was quiet in the town, and no certain intelligence of their having effected a landing had reached the city; all was kept as secret as possible, it was however supposed a landing had been made near Porto Fermosa. The Galatea was moored close in, and the marines were kept in readiness to land in the event of tumult or confusion. The Captain-General returned to town at midnight, and sent Mr. Ivans, an English merchant, to inform the Commander of the Galatea that a landing had been effected and possession taken of the district of Maya; he also requested protection on board the Galatea in case of need: this request required consideration, if granted, it would certainly be an interference, and if refused, it might be said, and indeed the argument was made use of by the Captain-General, that as Gen. Valdez, a constitutional governor, was received on board an English ship-of-war at Madeira, the same favour should be shown to him. The case of Valdez, was however, different; he certainly would have lost his life; the Captain-General stood in no danger: a middle course was

therefore pursued, and he was recommended to secure a passage in an English ship that had arrived the day before for refreshments. In the morning he received a despatch from the Commander of the Forces, informing him he was waiting the attack with great confidence, in an excellent position; he therefore suspended for the present engaging his passage, and fixed his head-quarters at the castle.

Many people had by this time assembled in the streets, and began to insult those obnoxious to them—the higher class of Portuguese kept out of the way. The Consul, the Captain of the Galatea, and some English merchants recommended order, and they succeeded in preserving peace and tranquillity. It was pointed out to the inhabitants, that if a tumult once arose, they might themselves be the sufferers; and they showed every disposition to attend to this advice. About noon a young Portuguese just arrived from England gave a *viva* for Donna Maria: all farther advice was useless; she was instantly proclaimed by the populace and pikemen, but no respectable persons were present. The Captain-General's wife became alarmed at this movement, and sought refuge in the Consul's house, where she removed her baggage, which, by the way, had been before packed up. She was followed by the members of the junta, and all the public officers, who had no hesitation in asking an asylum from the Consul, whom only a few days before they wished to imprison. The castle was still quiet, and the garrison shouted for Don Miguel; but the Captain-General and Governor, suspecting it would not remain so long, retired to the Government-house, and from thence over the wall which separated his premises from the Consul's. They were no sooner out of the castle than Don Miguel's flag was struck, Donna Maria's hoisted, and a salute fired. By this time there was a good deal of confusion, men were seen running about with pikes and muskets, others with drawn swords and bayonets, calling out lustily for the young Queen, and obliging all those they met to do the same; the wine was beginning to work, and there was every appearance of a row; no person thought of preserving order, and still less of securing themselves against the Miguelites, should they return either victorious or beaten. At last a few people were collected who had the appearance of officers, and were recommended to send into the castle every man with fire-arms, and all the pikemen, with the exception of thirty or forty to keep order; and also to find some respectable person to put himself forward and preserve the peace. They fixed on M. André de Pento, one of the richest and most respectable men on the island, and the only member of the municipality to be found; the rest had stowed themselves away in all directions. He accepted the trust, and immediately requested the Galatea's marines might be landed to preserve order. As no intelligence had arrived of what turn affairs had taken in the country, it was a delicate request to comply with, and in the event of bloodshed in the town an equally delicate one to refuse. The Miguelite Judge of Ribiera Grande, in the act of taking refuge in the Consul's house, being shot on the stair, and which act might have led to an attack on the whole party, at once decided the question; orders were sent to the Galatea, and in five minutes the marines were on shore.

It had been stipulated with the Provisional Government, that in the

event of Don Miguel's troops coming back in a body, either defeated or victorious, the castle should be left open for the marines to retire to, and from thence embark immediately. They had scarcely formed on the quay, when a report arrived that Don Miguel's troops were entering the town. The marines were immediately marched into the Consul's yard, and the gates shut. The troops turned out to be the stragglers returning from the field of battle, bringing intelligence of a total rout. It now became necessary to afford some protection to Don Miguel's defeated soldiers as they came in; the first officer who appeared, was twice fired at; a boy was killed and another wounded, and several were rescued from the fury of the mob; humanity required some interference; two parties of marines, an officer at the head of each, accompanied by a Portuguese gentleman to explain the nature of their mission, patrolled the streets, and prevented any farther excesses. Another party of Portuguese were stationed at the entrance of the town, to disarm the soldiers and conduct them to the castle. The Captain-General was required by the Provisional Government to embark, and at their request a guard of marines was furnished him. The Consul, the Captain, and several of the Galatea's officers, accompanied his family to the boats, and saw them safe off. They were cheered by the people in the castle, but whether for joy at their going off, or respect for their persons, it is hard to say; he was a good quiet man if left to himself, and his wife was a woman of some spirit. Several of his staff were bad subjects, and richly deserved to be detained, but the government made no distinction. Many of Don Miguel's officers were brought in, and allowed to go to their quarters on parole; the men were conducted to the castle and were well treated. The Galatea's marines occasionally patrolled the streets; the town was spontaneously and brilliantly illuminated, and at midnight all was as quiet as if nothing had happened. Next morning at ten o'clock the Count Villa Flor, at the head of his troops, entered the town, and was greeted by the inhabitants with the greatest joy; the windows were lined with well-dressed females, wearing the colours of Donna Maria, which had been some time in readiness; the convents poured forth their artificial flowers, and even the Miguelite convent in the square was decorated with her colours. The troops were formed in front of the Government House, and Donna Maria was proclaimed with the greatest enthusiasm. The corvette stood in at noon, but seeing the flag changed, made all sail to the westward; had a little management been used, she might have been secured, as it was supposed the Captain only waited a plausible excuse to give her up. Count Villa Flor and his principal officers were entertained at the hospitable board of the British Consul-General; the whole story of embarkation, crossing over, landing, and the battle, was talked over with great joy and delight; patriotic toasts were given by the English and Portuguese, the latter seemed perfectly to understand the English manner of rejoicing; and at a late hour the party broke up, as happy as such a gallant set of fellows deserved to be.

During the night the English ship in which the Captain-General had embarked, very improperly anchored in the bay; this gave great umbrage to Donna Maria's officers, and Count Villa Flor very natu-

rally desired to get hold of him, and wrote to the Consul to that effect. It was, however, thought better to prevent it; the Galatea sent a party to weigh her anchor. A great part of his baggage was very handsomely sent off, and a promise given that the rest should follow after the irritation was allayed.

It is difficult which most to admire, the gallantry and enterprise of the Terceirean troops, or their moderation after victory. With their small means, they fitted out an expedition in the very teeth of a corvette mounting twenty-four guns, and which they had every reason to believe would attack them; came over in vessels, many of them hardly fit to be trusted at sea; arrived at their point of debarkment in good time; clambered over almost inaccessible rocks; beat double their numbers in a strong position well defended by artillery; and marched into the city forty-eight hours after landing in perfect order and discipline. No plundering was permitted, no officer or soldier ill treated, or any re-action permitted. The soldiers were allowed to enter the Queen's service, and the officers to go to Lisbon or where they pleased. Had Don Miguel's party gained the day, a very different scene might have been acted; the Captain-General had orders to try all persons who even spoke disrespectfully of Don Miguel, by a commission, composed half of civilians and half military, and execute them in twenty-four hours, giving them that time to repent of their sins. Had the Terceireans been worsted, even that indulgence would not have been granted.

The island of Graciosa declared for Donna Maria before the capture of St. Michael's, and the other islands followed the fate of the seat of Government.

After garrisoning the Azores, the disposable force of the Regency was 5000 men; with the reinforcement they have since received, and their naval means, their success in Portugal is probable, if they are led with energy and spirit. The only sure manner of settling the Portuguese question, is by dashing right up the Tagus, and carrying the capital by storm. The defences of the river are no doubt strong, but with a fair wind, and strong current, they would be soon passed. The Portuguese artillery, though of high reputation in the Peninsular war, have not had much practice lately; every shot does not hit, and every shot that hits is not between wind and water; and if the guns on shore are divided between all the ships that form the expedition, there will not be more than half-a-dozen for each. It must also be remembered, that in the event of a check, any number of ships can anchor in the Tagus out of shot from all sides; and with a squadron before the town having 8000 troops on board, the inhabitants of Lisbon do not rise *en masse*, they cannot be favourable to Donna Maria; if not, that force on shore in any part of Portugal never could dethrone Don Miguel. If with a larger force they could not carry on a defensive war in the provinces of Minho and Douro in the first instance, it is not likely they can carry on an offensive war with a smaller one now.

C. N.

SKETCHES OF THE WAR OF THE FRENCH IN SPAIN, IN THE YEAR 1823.

BY A ROYALIST.

NO. II.

At break of day, on the 7th of April, mass was celebrated along the whole extent of the French line, and immediately afterwards the vanguard of the army, consisting of the 5th regiment of hussars, the 9th chasseurs, and the 9th of the line, passed the Bidassoa at Fontarabia, the cavalry fording the stream and the infantry in boats. The Prince Generalissimo passed at the head of the cavalry, and immediately advanced upon Irun, from whence the Spanish regiment, Imperial Alexandre, and some other detachments, fled at his approach. At Irun his Royal Highness was welcomed with shouts of "*Vive la Religion! vive le Roy! vive le Duc d'Angoulême!*"

This movement was immediately followed by the passage of the division of the first corps, consisting of the 20th, 22nd, 23rd, 27th, 30th, and 34th regiments of the line, under the command of the Viscount d'Autichamp. These regiments crossed by the bridge of boats constructed by Gen. Tiriot at Behobie.

At Ayarson and Ernani the Spaniards did not wait for the approach of his Royal Highness, but threw themselves into St. Sebastian's, leaving open the road to Tolosa. St. Sebastian's, which since the time of the siege it sustained from the British under Lord Lynedoch, had been almost entirely rebuilt and fortified anew, was garrisoned by a considerable force under the command of Don Alexander O'Donnell, the brother of Abisbal; and, as it was deemed necessary to invest it, the French division, under Count Bourk, was advanced for that purpose, after leaving detachments at Passages and Fontarabia.

Gen. Bourk having advanced close to the walls, summoned the governor by a flag of truce, which was received by a shower of musketry; upon which the French general ordered an immediate charge, and drove the Spanish troops from the position which they had still continued to occupy in front of the town, the French advancing with their usual impetuosity to the cry of "*Vive le Roi!*"

O'Donnell seemed somewhat appalled by the style in which this movement was executed, and sent to say, by a flag of truce, that although a mistake had occurred with respect to the reception of the French flag of truce, he nevertheless had considered hostilities suspended at the time of the French charge, and begged to apologise for the mistake in the first instance committed by his troops. The answer which Gen. Bourk returned to this message was, to withdraw his troops two hundred paces, and to permit the Spaniards thus again to resume their position on the heights, when he again charged them, and again overthrew them. In about an hour after the Spaniards again sallied from the fortress, but the division, which consisted of three regiments supported by the fire of the citadel, was met by a French division, consisting of the 23rd, 30th, and 35th regiments, commanded by the Generals Dalbignac and Marguyrre, was completely repulsed, and compelled to retire within the walls of the fortress.

These events were the signal for the Prince Generalissimo to hurry

from Irun, to participate in the hostilities in which his troops were engaged; but the defeat of the enemy only admitted of his arriving in time to reward with the decorations of the orders of St. Louis and the Legion of Honour, Gen. Bourk, and the officers and soldiers of his division who had distinguished themselves, and through whose exertions the enemy was already confined within the walls of St. Sebastian.

There were circumstances connected with the choice of the situation for distributing the rewards to the army which were not lost upon the French nation, and which bespoke in the Prince Generalissimo his descent from the chivalrous Henry. The spot selected by his Royal Highness for the ceremony was within sight and cannon-shot of the walls of St. Sebastian, and the only circumstance which threw a damp over the occurrences of this proud day for the soldiers of France was the precision with which some of the shots from the fortress told, as several men were killed close to the side of the Prince before the installation of the aspirants for the decorations distributed could be completed. In the evening of the same day his Royal Highness returned to Ernani, where deputations from the three Basque provinces waited upon him, and acknowledged the provisional government acting in the name of Ferdinand the Seventh. The houses of the town were decorated with the white flag, and with lilies, and the acclamations of the inhabitants bespoke their joy at the presence of the liberating army.

On the 11th the Prince advanced to Tolosa, where he halted the head-quarters, in order to give time for the advance of the second corps under Count Molitor. As at Irun, the Constitutionalists retreated from this place at the approach of his Royal Highness without striking a blow, and so precipitately, that they threw the whole of their artillery into the river. The Prince here installed a junta to act in the name of Ferdinand the Seventh, and pushing forward his advanced guard in the direction of Tudela, overthrew at the strong defiles of Salinas a corps of Spaniards under the command of Gen. Ballasteros; and on the 17th, amid the acclamations of the inhabitants, he entered the city of Vittoria. About the same time Bilbao was occupied by a French battalion, and corps of Spanish royalists, under the command of Gen. Quesada.

At Vittoria the Prince did not confine himself to inefficient display, but on the same day on which he entered the town he caused a corps to move upon Pancorbo, from which the Constitutionalists fled, leaving in his possession thirty-one pieces of cannon, several bombs, and a large quantity of ammunition. This operation also opened the road to Breoisiera, which the Spaniards left undefended.

Simultaneously with the movement upon Pancorbo, his Royal Highness had detached, in march upon Llogrona, the division of Gen. Obert. This town was garrisoned by a thousand picked men under the command of the celebrated Don Julian Sanchez. On the 18th the advanced guard of Gen. Obert, under Marischal de Camp, Vittré, arrived in front of the town, and Don Julian was immediately summoned by the French commander, by a flag of truce borne by Monsieur d'Imbert, to surrender. It was somewhat extraordinary that this flag was, as at St. Sebastian, received by the Spaniards with a shower of bullets. An instant assault by the French was the consequence, for which service the voltigeurs of the 20th regiment and a squadron of the chasseurs of

the Dordogne were selected. These troops were led by Monsieur Dacos de Chabannes, and being supported by a battalion of the line, they drove in the barricades of the first gate, whilst a drummer, named Matran, actually scaled the walls and opened the inner gate at the end of the bridge. It was then that the chasseurs of the Dordogne, supported by two squadrons of the chasseurs of the Lower Rhine, under Colonel de Muller, rushed through between the intervals of the infantry and entered the town, driving before them the constitutional troops, who fled by the opposite gate towards Villa Medicina, where some detachments of the Spanish regiments of Bourbon, and the Queen, were stationed. Having fallen back upon these reinforcements, the Spaniards again formed in square, but were so impetuously charged by Colonel de Muller, that they almost immediately gave way and fled in all directions. The General, Julian Sanchez, two hundred men, a standard, and three hundred muskets were captured, whilst the remainder of the party, pursued by the French hussars, fled for a couple of leagues farther. The killed of the Spaniards amounted to about thirty; whilst, besides Colonel de Muller, who was unfortunately severely wounded, and who ultimately died of his wounds, the French had only two other officers and a hussar and a chasseur wounded.

In this brilliant and decisive affair the combatants were nearly equal in point of numbers. The French had, in every respect, prodigiously the advantage of their antagonists in prowess and success; and had the ground on which the action and subsequent flight took place been less rocky and uneven, the loss of the Spaniards would certainly have been much greater. Captains de Chabannes and de Merville of the chasseurs, and Captain Touffray, who led the commencement of the charge at Villa Medicina, particularly distinguished themselves.

At Vittoria the Prince Generalissimo made some promotions, and conferred the orders of St. Louis and the Legion of Honour upon several officers who had distinguished themselves. The Marischal de Camp, Vallin, who had repulsed the corps of French deserters at Behobie, was promoted to be Lieutenant-General.

In the mean time the *corps d'armée* of the Eastern Pyrenees (the 4th corps) had continued to have their head-quarters at Perpignan, and upon the Duke of Cornegliano assuming the command on the 23rd of March, he had addressed to it the following order of the day.

"Soldiers! The King has deigned to confide to me the command of the *corps d'armée* of the Eastern Pyrenees, under the orders of his Royal Highness the Duke d'Angoulême. I have confidence that you will be worthy of having at your head a descendant of the great Henry.

"Soldiers, you have not only to distinguish yourselves in the field of honour, other duties are imposed upon you; without discipline there is no army, no real glory; respect property, protect peaceable inhabitants,—such ought to be, such will be our device.

"Let us be animated with equal devotion, let our efforts display an invincible perseverance, and our relations evince honour never to be questioned; it is thus that we shall accord with the expectation of His Majesty.—*Vive le Roy!*"

"The Marshal Duke de Cornegliano, Moncey."

This veteran officer, the eldest of the French marshals, had commanded in Catalonia during the first war which revolutionary France

had waged against Spain, and which is known in history as the war of the Pyrenees. He had during the whole course of the events which followed the revolution borne a good character, and his present devotion to the cause of the Bourbons was undoubted.

On the 17th of April he entered Spain at the head of his *corps d'armée* by the route of Janguera and Camani, and advancing in the direction of Figueras, he found himself before that fortress on the 22nd. He immediately summoned it to surrender in the name of Ferdinand the Seventh, but to this summons St. Miguel, the governor, returned a positive refusal, which he at the same time thought proper to couch in low and uncivil language. He was the brother of St. Miguel who held the office of minister for foreign affairs in the government of the Cortes.*

The royalist levies of the Baron d'Erolles continued to co-operate with the fourth *corps d'armée;* whilst those of Quesada, Longa, the Trappist, and others, manœuvred on the flanks and rear of the Prince Generalissimo. As indicative of the state of feeling in a great portion of the Peninsula, it cannot be denied that the existence of these corps was desirable; although the difficulty which there was in introducing regular military discipline amongst them was in no small degree perplexing to his Royal Highness. In spite of the utmost exertions of Abisbal and O'Daly, the corps of Bessieres and Ulman had again rallied in the vicinity of Madrid, and both the military posts of the Escurial and the Prado continued in their possession. Ulman had in particular displayed great military talents, and on the side of Valencia had occasioned the greatest annoyance and distraction to the constitutional commanders.

Although it had long been known that the Cortes had determined, in the event of the country being invaded, to remove the King and the royal family from the capital, and although this resolution could not but be considered as demonstrative of the government entertaining scarcely any hope of successful resistance being offered to the enemy, Madrid still continued to wear the aspect of tranquillity. It is true that the physicians of the King had declared the probability of his removal being attended with fatal consequences to his health, but this neither drew from ministers any intimation as to the time when he would be required to depart, nor the length of the journey which he would be required to undertake. This reserve on the part of the Cortes was probably to be accounted for, from the dread known to be entertained, lest the royalists and a part of the populace might attempt to rescue his Majesty. If the health of the King was bad, that of the Queen was worse; fear and mental anguish had reduced her to the most deplorable condition—she never recovered her health, but died some few years afterwards, a sacrifice to the continued terror in which, as Queen of Spain, she had been forced to spend many years of her life.

It was on the 20th of March that Ferdinand was at length summoned to quit Madrid. So great was the alarm in which his jailors continued, lest a rescue should be attempted, that it was given out previously to his departure that he would leave the capital by the gate of Toledo, for the purpose of proceeding to Andalusia, at eight o'clock on the

* The same who was aid-de-camp of Riego, and sang the "Traga-la" in the theatre at Madrid.

morning of the 20th, whilst, in reality, the King and the other members of the royal family were hurried in sedan chairs, through by-ways, to the avenue called the Walk of Lilacs, where they got into carriages prepared for the journey, and, accompanied by a small escort of cavalry, proceeded at a rapid pace to the road leading to the bridge of Toledo, where the escort of national guards and volunteers destined for the journey was in waiting. At this point a scene of indescribable confusion ensued, as it was found hardly possible to form and put in march these undisciplined troops. The King was compelled to wait at this place for some hours, and continued seated in his carriage, pale, dejected, and exhausted; by his side was the Queen, who, although from consternation nearly insensible, did not cease to weep. Three other carriages contained the infants of Spain and their families, whose state of suffering was equally apparent, as that of the King and Queen. The rest of the court followed in six carriages. At last the cavalcade was put in motion, and moved slowly on to the cries of "Liberty for ever! Independence for ever!"

During the first day's journey the national guards became so much fatigued that they declared themselves unable to keep up with the carriages, and with the usual consistency of the populace, blamed the King as the cause of the march having been imposed upon them, and assailed him with threats and imprecations. Alas, but a small portion of reason or reflection would have been necessary to convince any beings bearing the human shape, that a more unwilling traveller than his Majesty never undertook this or any other journey; but such always are the populace, and such has always been the conduct of legislators and soldiers, destitute of the first elements of sense and knowledge. Alarmed, however, lest violence should be offered to the members of the *cortège*, and feeling for the terror of the women and children of the party, his Majesty, with that benignity of disposition for which, spite of the atrocious imputations of his enemies, he is in reality so conspicuous, descended from his carriage and continued to walk with the soldiers, or rather the porters and muleteers of Madrid, for of such was his escort composed, and by conversing with them he endeavoured to soothe and conciliate them, till, exhausted by fatigue, and the lameness with which he was afflicted, he was at length compelled to mount on horseback. Although the cavalcade had left Madrid at eight o'clock in the morning, so slowly did it advance, that it was not till eight in the evening that it reached Aranjuez, a distance not exceeding twenty English miles.

As it had been announced that the King would depart by the gate of Toledo, crowds of persons had early in the morning assembled in its vicinity; and an hour after the King had in reality left the capital, it was intimated that he had gone. Many persons would not at first believe this to be the case, but most of those present returned forthwith to their homes. Some of them seemed penetrated with grief, others were indignant at the trick which had been put upon them, and throughout the day it was remarked that most of the shops in the capital continued closed.

The King continued his journey slowly towards Seville, and although subjected to much insult from the troops, the inhabitants of the towns through which he passed seemed in general to commiserate his distress. At Manzanares, however, where he halted on the 24th, some

disposition was shown by the people and authorities to insult him, and upon the constitutional stone were hung garlands; and the names of Porlier, Lacy, and other individuals who had suffered for rebellion, were painted, or gilt, in large letters upon the stone.

It was not till the morning of the 10th of April, that it was known to the inhabitants of Seville, that the King and the Royal Family would enter their city in the course of the day, and preparations were accordingly made by the authorities for their reception. Near the gate of Triana, through which the procession was to enter, the most of the houses displayed, hung from their balconies, counterpanes of purple silk,—the dwelling of the Ayuntamenti being the most conspicuous for the decorations of the magnificent pillars in its front, which were profusely wreathed with roses, and the cornices covered with ancient and magnificent tapestry; whilst the gallery inside was ranged with chivalric ornaments and devices. The long lines of narrow streets, from the gate of Triana to the Plaça de la Constitucion, were similarly ornamented, and the balconies in general filled with females. The convents displayed in their fronts splendid specimens of ancient tapestry, with which indeed most of these buildings appeared entirely covered.

At a quarter past one o'clock, a royal salute of thirteen guns announced the King's entrance at the gate of Triana, where the municipality presented him with the keys of the city. At this moment some of the cavalry who surrounded his carriage, shouted "*Viva Riego!*" but nobody joined in the cry, and it was not repeated; at the same time an officer of infantry near the King's carriage called out "*Viva!*" without any addition, and the allusion was instantly caught, and responded to by the balconies, and the King, who, dressed in uniform, sat forward in the carriage, bowed slightly in return. It was supposed that his wish was, that his friends should not compromise themselves in presence of the troops; but when the procession reached the Plaça de la Constitucion, there was a general and simultaneous shout of "*Viva!*" without any addition, which must have sounded portentously in the ears of the Constitutionalists, some of whose troops attempted to drown it by adding, "*La Constitucion!*" and some "*El Rey Constitutional!*" whilst the military bands played the hymn of Riego. It was, however, very evident that the persons at the windows and in the balconies took no part in these expressions, and that they were only deterred by the presence of the troops from demonstrations of a very opposite kind.

At a few minutes before two o'clock, the King arrived at the royal palace, which was announced by another salute of fifteen guns, and the sound of the whole of the bells of the city.

Torrents of rain continued to fall during the whole time consumed in passing through the city, and it was remarked, that the Queen wholly unable to overcome her terror and disgust, sat back in the carriage and was nearly invisible.

The next day the arrival of the Cortes was announced by the ringing of bells, and salutes of artillery; and although the authorities had been at pains to render this ceremony also as insulting as possible to the King, it too was a failure, as the populace expressed no joy whatever upon the occasion.

THE PRIZE RECAPTURED.

AN INCIDENT OF THE LAST AMERICAN WAR.

THE following Narrative is a plain statement of authenticated facts which occurred to two brothers, one of whom only, now serving as Captain in the —— regiment, survives.

In the middle of the year 1812, when England, in a situation all but desperate, was combating singly with the European continent for existence, she sustained an attack from a quarter where she might have expected and ought certainly to have met with sympathy. Her offspring in the New World ungenerously declared against her! and suddenly covered the Atlantic with a swarm of privateers, eager to prey on her ill-armed and worse-manned merchantmen.

Among the many captures made by these hornets in the early part of the war, the following narrative of one is remarkable for its evidence of the effect of surprise in paralysing the minds of men, whose active and dangerous occupation ought certainly to render them the least subject to panic. But we believe there are very few men conscious of possessing what Napoleon (in allusion to an anecdote related in the Memoirs of the Duc de Sully) calls "two o'clock in the morning courage."* Indeed, for one who would have acted with the presence of mind recorded of the gallant Crillon,† thousands, perhaps, in other circumstances, equally brave, would have fled; a truth which the subjoined statement may tend to demonstrate.

A small merchant brig, called the Euphemia, belonging to a house

---

* "As to moral courage," observed he, "I have very rarely met with *the two o'clock in the morning kind.* I mean unprepared courage, that which is necessary on an unexpected occasion, and which, in spite of the most unforeseen events, leaves full freedom of judgment and decision."—*Las Cases' Journal*, vol. i. part second, p. 8.

† In the life of the Duke of Epernon, the following anecdote is related of Lewis Berto de Crillon, or Grillon, a gentleman of Avignon. "The Duke of Guise, to whom he had been sent after the reduction of Marseilles, having a mind to try his courage," says the historian, "agreed with some gentlemen to give a sudden alarm before Grillon's quarters, as if the enemy had been masters of the town; at the same time he ordered two horses to the door, and rushing into Crillon's room, cried 'all was lost; that the enemy were masters of the port and town, and broke and put to flight all that opposed them; that two horses were at the door, and desired him to haste and fly.' Crillon was asleep when the alarm was given, and hardly awake whilst the Duke of Guise was speaking. However, without being at all disconcerted by so hot an alarm, he called for his clothes and his arms, saying, 'they ought not, on too slight grounds, to give credit to all that was said of the enemy; and even if the account was correct, it was more becoming men of honour to die with their arms in their hands, than to survive with the loss of the place.'

"The Duke of Guise, being unable to prevail on him to change his resolution, followed him out of the room; but when they were got half-way down stairs, not being able to contain himself any longer, he burst out a laughing, by which Crillon discovered the trick that had been played him. He assumed a look much sterner than when he only thought of going to fight, and squeezing the Duke of Guise's hand, said, swearing at the same time, 'Young man, never make it a jest to try the courage of a man of honour, for, by G—! hadst thou made me betray any weakness, I would have plunged my dagger in thy heart,' and then left him without saying a word more."—*Sully's Memoirs*, vol. iii. p. 409, note; new edition, 1812.

in Glasgow, on her voyage from La Guayra in Colombia to Gibraltar, on the 16th Dec. 1812, with a favourable breeze, in latitude forty degrees, and a little to the westward of the Azores, discovered at daylight a large ship astern, close hauled on the starboard tack standing to the southward. It was soon after observed, and reported to the Captain of the brig, a young man of two and twenty, that the stranger had bore up, was making sail in chase, and from the cut and colour of his canvass, was evidently a ship of war and a foreign one. The Euphemia running before the wind, and the stranger a considerable distance astern, a few hours of anxious consultation intervened as to the propriety of resistance should she prove an enemy; during this interval, the little brig was prepared for action. Her means of defence consisted in eight twelve-pounder carronades, and two long threes: the crew, including boys and officers, mustered twenty-five hands, and one passenger, a young gentleman about eighteen, the master's brother.

At eleven A. M. when the stranger was within about two miles, she hoisted an English ensign and pendant, which only increased the suspicion previously existing, and in another hour she was within pistol-shot alongside, showed American colours, and fired a gun athwart the forefoot. She appeared to be a large corvette mounting twenty-two guns with strong substantial quarters of stout scantling, and her tops full of men.

Notwithstanding the overpowering force of the enemy, the crew of the Euphemia, true to the character of British seamen, stood steady at their guns, watching with their petty artillery the motions of the enemy. The young man who commanded her, having coolly examined and satisfied himself of his antagonist's force, cried to his crew, "Men! you see the enemy's force,—if we engage, will you stand by me?" One fine fellow, the captain of one of the guns, quickly stood erect from his position, in marking the enemy's ship, and exclaimed, "Stand by you, Sir! by G— we'll go down with you," and instantly resumed his station. This noble fellow's name was Diamond, an Irishman; but a man at the helm, who from his station and the sheer of the deck was very much exposed, pointed out the hopelessness of the contest, to which, with tears in his eyes, Capt. —— assented, and ordered the colours to be hauled down.

The enemy proved to be the America, a private armed ship belonging to Boston, of twenty-two guns, and 200 men, homeward bound after a cruise.

The commander of the privateer transhipped the whole of the carronades, and left only small arms sufficient for eleven men and a boy, whom he sent on board to navigate the prize. The whole of the British were removed on board the America, with the exception of the Master and his brother, and an old man who had been cook, and allowed to remain as servant to these gentlemen. It was observed, that the officers of the America wore uniform coats and epaulettes, and the vessel appeared to be in a very respectable state of discipline. Her owners, it was understood, only supplied provisions to the crew, who for wages depended entirely on prize money. From what followed, it appeared these ships' crews are, by the laws of the United States, subject to trial on their return by naval courts martial for offences com-

mitted at sea; this may partly accouut for the regularity and discipline prevailing in such a body.

The boats having been hoisted in, both vessels shaped their course for Boston. The following day proved stormy, with the wind westerly as before; and it was now mortifying to observe, that the prize weathered fast on the America; so much so, that she was ordered to make the best of her way for an American port. This order was no sooner known to the two young prisoners, than a resolution was made to attempt by themselves the recapture of the brig; a determination which, however extraordinary, was successfully carried into effect.

The fire-arms were kept on deck; but it was known that the prize-master had in his possession somewhere about the cabin two brace of pistols, and a claymore or Highland broad sword, to obtain possession of these became the primary object. The magazine being, as usual in such vessels, below the cabin floor, to which a hatch under the table led, there was very little trouble in providing ammunition, the great difficulty being to ascertain where the concealed arms were. As it was manifest success must depend entirely on the instant advantage to be taken of the first moments of panic, it was highly necessary that the brothers should act as with one mind under every possible contingency, to prevent, if possible, the enemy having an instant for recollection, or observation of the numbers opposed to him. To this end, and to avoid being overheard, all intercourse on this subject was made on a slate, and to account for its frequent interchange, in case of observation, a riddle, a conundrum, or a problem, occupied the upper surface, and such, in fact, was the amusement when either of the American officers were present. While searching for the arms, it was necessary that one of the gentlemen should attend to give notice when any one was coming below; and this was rendered easy in consequence of an opening over the cabin door being so large, that a person sitting on the lockers in the cabin could see the companion ladder. This opening had been made after the vessel was a prize, by the labour of a pet parrot, whose destructive bill was in this way a useful auxiliary. Having at last found the concealed arms, they were immediately prepared. It was judged improper to load both brace of pistols with ball, one pistol therefore in the possession of each was charged with slugs, made of a pair of pewter tea-spoons, broken up at the moment they were wanted; the remaining two only were loaded with ball. The former were the first destined to be made use of, and the others when necessary. After being loaded and ready, they were concealed in the bed-clothes of the elder brother's berth, who slept on the starboard side of the cabin. The prizemaster or his mate slept alternately in one opposite on the larboard side. The crew's berths were part forward in the forecastle, and part in the steerage; the passage to the latter was through the companion, in consequence of the steerage hatch being for warmth kept close battened.

A little after four P.M. on the 5th January 1813, it being then dusk, the desperate attempt to recapture the ship was made, an attempt which may be called desperate, for to most men it will appear so, when the fearful odds, two men against twelve, are alone considered; but a just knowledge of the constitution of the generality of men's minds in cases of sudden alarm, and due weight allowed to the fact

that the seamen were novices in war, the chances of success will not appear so very unfeasible. At the moment mentioned, three of the crew were known to be in the steerage, and the prizemaster had just turned in, being their watch below; thus, eight only, including the boy, could be on deck. All being ready, with one consent the brothers sprang to their arms; the American master at this instant luckily gave no sign of being awake, and while the younger brother locked the cabin door after him, Capt. —— got on deck and cried aloud, "This vessel is now again my property!" immediately discharging a pistol at the helmsman. The seamen appeared to have been collected on the larboard side of the quarter-deck, talking with the man at the helm, who dropped in consequence of receiving, almost at the same moment with the slug-shot, a sabre wound. The others ran round the opposite side of the companion on their way forward; the remaining charge of slugs was sent among them, and Capt. —— pursued, while his brother, stationed at the companion, warned those below that an attempt to come on deck would meet with instant death. On the former reaching the windlass, he found the mate, a tall muscular man, ready to charge him with a boarding pike, but knocking it aside with his broadsword, and placing the muzzle of the remaining pistol close to the man's head, he ordered him instantly below, a mandate that was promptly obeyed; those remaining quickly followed, tumbling down the hatchway in great haste, to the manifest danger of their limbs. He then drew the hatch over, and lashed a kedge across it to the two bower anchors: coming aft, a rope was run round the companion doorway, which had no lock, and a couple of nails driven behind the slide which secured the crew below; and thus the brig was restored to her rightful commander.

It now became necessary to consider the means of navigating the ship, and the care of the wounded men, for it was judged another had been hurt by the second shot in consequence of the scream or exclamation which followed the discharge. On examining the man remaining on deck, it was found that slugs had penetrated the arm, and he was lightly injured in the side; the other man's wound proved to be very trifling. After dressing the hurt of the former, he was sent below in the forecastle, to which place the three men in the steerage were likewise transferred. The prizemaster was allowed to remain locked up in the cabin. The whole of the small arms were at this juncture thrown overboard, with the exception of the two brace of pistols mentioned, and a cutlass.

The weather had been nearly calm all day, but as it could not be expected to remain moderate on the North American shores at that season of the year, a man and boy were called up to assist in reefing topsails and working the ship. When with these feeble means every thing was made secure, the log-book was examined, whence the ship's place appeared to be a little to the north-west of Cape Cod; but no observation had been obtained for several days, and very little confidence was placed in the reckoning. A course was, however, shaped for Halifax, Nova Scotia, as the most convenient port; but unhappily during the night it began to blow from the north-west, and continued with occasional lulls until the night of the 8th, when soundings were suddenly got in fifteen fathoms water: this was very alarming on a

coast where the tide is known to have great influence on a ship's course, and the more so, as it was impossible to decide whether she was off Cape Table or Table Island, soundings on both banks being very similar, besides, having been unable to get a sight of the sun, it was scarce possible to make a reasonable guess. In the interval from the 5th to the 8th, the weather had become exceedingly cold, the spray of the sea covered the decks and rigging with one connected sheet of ice; it had been found necessary to have six of the Americans, three at a time on deck to work the ship; the oil for the binnacle was all expended, and to afford a wretched light candles were made of cook's skimmings: the wine and spirits were exhausted, and once or twice it had become impossible to boil a piece of meat, the spray washing out the fire: finally, the youthful captors having been unable to take any rest were almost exhausted with cold and want of sleep. In this distressing situation, six Americans were brought on deck together, to get the ship on the other tack, and hand the fore-topsail, for which purpose they were all sent aloft, but the spray had made the sail as stiff as a board, and it was found impossible to furl it; one seaman lay down in the top, unable from fright or the severity of the cold to come down, (it was reported he was frozen there,) and the others appearing to be quite exhausted were sent below. Under these overpowering causes, it was become necessary again to yield the recapture to the prize-master.

On going below, the appearance of two such intruders on the solitary prisoner, with the miserable light scarce sufficing to show the icicles hanging from the hairs of the head and whiskers, sheets of the same material attached to the clothing, a naked cutlass with two loaded pistols stuck round the waist in canvass belts, and eyes red with watching—the entrance of two such men must have tried his nerves, but he showed no sign of trepidation, and in common circumstances, there is little doubt would have maintained the reputation of a good as well as a brave seaman; he was a stout muscular well-looking man, a native of Talem, in the state of Massachusetts. He and his mate agreed to certain articles of capitulation, which were faithfully kept; one of these was, that if required he should surrender the long boat with the baggage, provided land was made in any part of the British Americas.

During the night the wind got round to the eastward, and the following day land was made, and ships were observed coming out of a harbour, which was afterwards known to have been Port Roseway, in Nova Scotia; at this time it was mistaken for some part of the province of Maine. The fleet seen coming out were under convoy, as was afterwards learnt, of His Majesty's ship Rattler, Capt. Gordon, bound up the bay of Fundy. Although the Euphemia could not have been six miles distant from His Majesty's sloop, she took no notice, and shortly after it began to snow so thick that every thing was obscured. Having stood to the southward, there was no appearance on the day following of either land or ships. A few days more brought the brig into an unfrequented harbour in the province of Maine, where the master and his brother left her, and got a passage in a boat proceeding towards East-port, a town on the frontier, but which landed them on paying a little extra in Grand Manan, an island on the British

side; thence they proceeded by way of St. Andrew's, and St. John's, New Brunswick, to Halifax.

Here our narrative might terminate, but as it is not the least singular part of this story, that these gentlemen should have had the misfortune again to fall in with the same cruiser on their passage from Halifax to England, and to become prisoners a second time, the reader may wish to be made acquainted with the sequel: the story is therefore continued.

Having remained some weeks in Halifax to recruit lost health, a passage was taken in the brig Lucy, Capt. Hutchinson, for Liverpool. On board of this vessel, besides the subjects of our narrative, there were as passengers, two gentlemen, a boy, and a lady with two children. The Lucy proceeded favourably for about ten days, when, being a little to the eastward of the great bank of Newfoundland, a strange sail was reported at daylight to be in chase; she was soon recognised to be the America by her late prisoners, much to their astonishment and vexation. The America's worst point of sailing being known to be on a wind, the Lucy was forthwith close-hauled, and her capture in consequence delayed until noon, but not having a single gun, she was at that hour a prize.

On the Captain of the enemy's ship learning that the two young gentlemen who recaptured the Euphemia were again his prisoners, he visited them, assured them of the kindest treatment, and kept his word. On being conveyed on board the ship of war, the crew evinced great anxiety to see their prisoners, the ship's sides and rigging were literally screened with seamen, and when on deck it was scarce possible to move, at the same time perfect decorum was preserved, and they were very respectful; the quarter-deck was cleared the moment the order was given, and indeed, as has been already stated, the discipline on board was remarkable. Next day curiosity had in some degree subsided.

It was here reported that the prizemaster and mate of the Euphemia were tried by a naval court martial, and that the former was declared incapable of serving the United States in any capacity.

In a few days, the America fell in with a fleet for Newfoundland, and the gulf of St. Lawrence; the convoy under the command, we believe, of Admiral Sir R. Keats, through which she passed in the night undiscovered. Next day an unfortunate straggler was captured, a schooner full of passengers from Waterford, bound to Newfoundland. After plundering this vessel she was allowed to proceed; the passengers and crew of the Lucy were likewise permitted to avail themselves of this opportunity of escaping an American prison, and in a few days arrived at St. John's, whence making another attempt to reach Great Britain they were successful, landing at Greenock, a port in Scotland, in the autumn of 1813.

Had there been among the American crew one individual possessed of the energy and moral courage noted as the "*two o'clock in the morning kind,*" the result might, nay must have been very different. Yet, the foresight, confidence, and judgment displayed in this spirited enterprise are abundantly remarkable; and the successful issue for the time was well deserved.—*Fortes fortuna juvat.*

REMINISCENCES OF A SUBALTERN.

NO X.

The burst of enthusiasm caused by Gen. Picton's address to the Connaught Rangers had scarcely ceased, when the signal gun announced that the attack was to commence. Generals Picton and Mackinnon dismounted from their horses, and placing themselves at the head of the right brigade, the troops rapidly entered the trenches by sections right in front; the storming party under the command of Major Russell Manners, of the 74th, heading it, while the forlorn-hope, commanded by Lieut. William Mackie, of the 88th, and composed of twenty volunteers from the Connaught Rangers, led the van, followed closely by the 45th, 88th, and 74th British, and the 9th, and 21st Portuguese; the 77th and 83rd British, belonging to the left brigade, brought up the rear, and completed the dispositions.

While those arrangements were effecting opposite the grand breach, the 5th and 94th, belonging to the left brigade of the third division, were directed to clear the ramparts and Fausse Braye wall, and the second regiment of Portuguese caçadores, commanded by an Irish Colonel of the name of O'Toole, was to escalade the curtain to the left of the lesser breach, which was attacked by the light division under the command of Gen. Robert Craufurd.

The 43rd light infantry, heading the light division, were followed by the 95th and 52nd British, and the 3rd and 7th Portuguese caçadores; the storming party, led by Capt. Ferguson of the 52nd, and the forlorn-hope by Lieut. Gurwood of the same regiment, preceded the entire. It wanted twenty minutes to seven o'clock when those dispositions were completed—the moon occasionally, as the clouds which overcast it passed away, shed a faint ray of light upon the battlements of the fortress, and presented to our view the glittering of the enemy's bayonets as their soldiers stood arrayed upon the ramparts and breach awaiting our attack; yet, nevertheless, their batteries were silent, and might warrant the supposition to an unobservant spectator that the defence would be but feeble.

The two divisions, arrayed as I have described, got clear of the covert way at the same moment, and each advanced to the attack of their respective points with the utmost regularity. The obstacles which presented themselves to both were nearly the same, but every difficulty, no matter how great, merged into insignificance when placed in the scale of the prize about to be contested. The soldiers were full of ardour, but altogether devoid of that blustering and bravadoing which is truly unworthy of men at such a moment; and it would be difficult to convey an adequate idea of the enthusiastic bravery which animated the troops. A cloud that had for some time before obscured the moon, which was at its full, disappeared altogether, and the countenances of the soldiers were for the first time, since Gen. Picton addressed them, visible—they presented a material change. In place of that joyous animation which his fervid and impressive address called forth, a look of severity, bordering on ferocity, had taken its place; and although ferocity is by no means one of the characteristics of the British soldier, there was, most unquestionably, a savage expression in the faces of the

men, that I had never before witnessed. Such is the difference between the storm of a breach and the fighting a pitched battle.

Once clear of the covert-way, and fairly on the plain that separated it from the fortress, the enemy had a clear view of all that was passing; their batteries, charged to the muzzle with case-shot, opened a murderous fire upon the columns as they advanced, but nothing could shake the intrepid bravery of the troops. The light division soon descended the ditch, and gained, although not without a serious struggle, the top of the narrow and difficult breach allotted to them;—their gallant General, Robert Craufurd, fell at the head of the 43rd, and his second in command, General Vandeleur, was severely wounded, but there were not wanting others to supply their place; yet those losses, trying as they were to the feelings of the soldiers, in no way damped their ardour, and the brave light division carried the left breach at the point of the bayonet. Once established upon the ramparts, they made all the dispositions necessary to ensure their own conquest, as also to render every assistance in their power to the third division in their attack. They cleared the rampart which separated the lesser from the grand breach, and relieved Picton's division from any anxiety it might have as to its safety on its left flank.

The right brigade, consisting of the 45th, 88th, and 74th, forming the van of the third division, upon reaching the ditch, to its astonishment, found Major Ridge and Colonel Campbell at the head of the 5th and 94th, mounting the Fausse Braye wall; those two regiments, after having performed their task of silencing the fire of the French troops upon the ramparts, with a noble emulation resolved to precede their comrades in the attack of the grand breach—both parties greeted each other with a cheer, *only* to be understood by those who have been placed in a similar situation; yet the enemy were in no way daunted by the shout raised by our soldiers,—they crowded the breach, and defended it with a bravery that would have made any but troops accustomed to conquer, waver. But the "fighting division" were not the men to be easily turned from their purpose; the breach was speedily mounted, yet, nevertheless, a serious affray took place ere it was gained. A considerable mass of infantry crowned its summit, while in the rear and at each side were stationed men, so placed that they could render every assistance to their comrades at the breach without any great risk to themselves; besides this, two guns of heavy calibre, separated from the breach by a ditch of considerable depth and width, enfiladed it, and as soon as the French infantry were forced from the summit, those guns opened their fire upon our troops.

The head of the column had scarcely gained the top, when a discharge of grape cleared the ranks of the three leading battalions, and caused a momentary wavering; at the same instant a frightful explosion near the gun to the left of the breach, which shook the bastion to its foundation, completed the disorder. This was unavoidable, because those of the advance being either killed or wounded, were necessarily flung back upon the troops that followed close upon their footsteps, and there was not a sufficient space for the men who were ready to sustain those placed *hors de combat*, to rally. For an instant all was confusion; the blaze of light caused by the explosion, resembled a huge meteor, and presented to our sight the havock which the enemy's fire

had caused in our ranks; while from afar, the astonished Spaniard viewed for an instant, with horror and dismay, the soldiers of the two nations grappling with each other on the top of the rugged breach which trembled beneath their feet, while the fire of the French artillery played upon our columns with irresistible fury, sweeping from the spot the living and the dead. Amongst the latter was the General of our brigade, Mackinnon, Capt. Robert Hardyman, and Lieut. Pearce, of the 45th, Lieut. Beresford, of the 88th, and many more whose names I cannot recollect. Many others were so stunned by the shock, or wounded by the stones which were hurled forth by the explosion, that they were insensible to their situation; of this number I was one, for being close to the magazine when it blew up, I was quite overpowered, and I owed my life to the Serjeant-Major of my regiment, Thorp, who saved me from being trampled to death by our soldiers in their advance, ere I could recover strength sufficient to move forward, or protect myself.

The French, animated by this accidental success, hastened once more to the breach which they had abandoned, but the leading regiment of Picton's division, which had been disorganized for the moment by the explosion, rallied, and soon regained its summit, when another discharge from the two flank guns swept away the foremost of those battalions.

There was at this time but one officer alive upon the breach, (Major Thomson, of the 74th, acting engineer;) he called out to those next to him to seize the gun to the left, which had been so fatal to his companions—but this was a desperate service. The gun was completely cut off from the breach by a deep trench, and soldiers, encumbered with their firelocks could not pass it in sufficient time to anticipate the next discharge—but to deliberate was certain death. The French cannoneers, five in number, stood to, and served their gun with as much *sang-froid* as if on a parade, and the light which their torches threw forth, showed to our men the peril they would have to encounter if they dared to attack a gun so defended—but this was of no avail. Men going to storm a breach, generally make up their minds that there is no great probability of their ever returning from it to tell their adventures to their friends; and whether they die at the bottom or top of it, or at the muzzle or upon the breech of a cannon, is to them pretty nearly the same!

The first that reached the top after the last discharge, were three of the 88th. Serjeant Pat Brazill—the brave Brazill of the Grenadier company, who saved his Captain's life at Busacco,*—called out to his two companions, Swan and Kelly, to unscrew their bayonets and follow him; the three men passed the trench in a moment, and engaged the French cannoneers hand to hand—a terrific but short combat was the consequence. Swan was the first, and was met by the two gunners on the right of the gun, but, no way daunted, he engaged them,

* "Capt. Dunne fought with his sabre, while Capt. Dansey made use of a firelock and bayonet; he received three wounds, and Capt. Dunne owed his life to a serjeant of his company named Brazill, who, seeing his officers in danger of being overpowered, scrambled to his assistance, and making a thrust of his halbert at the Frenchman, transfixed him against the rock he was standing on."—*Reminiscences of a Subaltern, No. I, October* 1830.

and plunged his bayonet into the breast of one; he was about to repeat the blow upon the other, but before he could disentangle the weapon from his bleeding adversary, the second Frenchman closed upon him, and by a *coup de sabre*, severed his left arm from his body a little above the elbow; he fell from the shock, and was on the eve of being massacred, when Kelly, after having scrambled under the gun, rushed onward to succour his comrade. He bayonetted two Frenchmen on the spot; and at this instant Brazill came up—three of the five gunners lay lifeless, while Swan, resting against an ammunition chest, was bleeding to death. It was now equal numbers, two against two, but Brazill in his over anxiety to engage, was near losing his life at the onset; in making a lunge at the man next to him, his foot slipped upon the bloody platform, and he fell forward against his antagonist, but as both rolled under the gun, Brazill felt the socket of his bayonet strike hard against the buttons of the Frenchman's coat. The remaining gunner, in attempting to escape under the carriage from Kelly, was killed by some soldiers of the 5th, who just now reached the top of the breach, and seeing the serious dispute at the gun, pressed forward to the assistance of the three men of the Connaught Rangers.

While this was taking place on the left, the head of the column mounted the breach, and regardless of the cries of their wounded companions, whom they indiscriminately trampled to death, pressed forward in one irregular but heroic mass, and putting every man to death that opposed their progress, forced the enemy from the ramparts at the bayonet's point. Yet the garrison still rallied, and defended the several streets with the most unflinching bravery; nor was it until the musketry of the light division was heard in the direction of the Plaza Major, that they gave up the contest! but from this moment all regular resistance ceased, and they fled in disorder to the citadel. There were, nevertheless, several minor combats in the streets, and in many instances the inhabitants fired from the windows, but whether their efforts were directed against us or the French, is a point that I do not feel myself competent to decide; be this as it may, many lives were lost on both sides by this circumstance, for the Spaniards firing without much attention to regularity, killed or wounded indiscriminately all that came within their range. This led many to suppose that the defence of the town would be prolonged, and that the houses, as at Buenos Ayres, would be defended; but although this idea had the good effect of keeping our men more compactly united than would otherwise have been the case, it was an erroneous opinion, as the French never attempted the defence of a single house.

During a contest of such a nature, kept up in the night, as may be supposed, much was of necessity left to the guidance of the subordinate officers, if not to the soldiers themselves. Each affray in the streets was conducted in the best manner the moment would admit of, and decided more by personal valour than discipline, and in some instances officers as well as privates had to combat with the imperial troops. In one of those encounters, Lieut. George Faris of the 88th, by an accident so likely to occur in an affair of this kind, separated a little too far from a dozen or so of his regiment, found himself opposed to a French soldier who apparently was similarly placed;—it was a curious

coincidence, and it would seem as if each felt that *he* individually was the representative of the country to which he belonged; and had the fate of the two nations hung upon the issue of the combat I am about to describe, it could not have been more heroically contested. The Frenchman fired at, and wounded Faris in the thigh, and made a desperate push with his bayonet at his body, but Faris parried the thrust, and the bayonet only lodged in his leg; he saw at a glance the peril of his situation, and that nothing short of a miracle could save him;—the odds against him were too great, and if he continued a scientific fight he must inevitably be vanquished; he sprang forward, and seizing hold of the Frenchman by the collar, a struggle of a most nervous kind took place; in their mutual efforts to gain an advantage, they lost their caps, and as they were men of nearly equal strength, it was doubtful what the issue would be. They were so entangled with each other, their weapons were of no avail, but Faris at length disengaged himself from the grasp which held him, and he was able to use his sabre; he pushed the Frenchman from him, and ere he could recover himself he laid his head open nearly to the chin; his sword blade, a heavy, soft, ill-made Portuguese one, was doubled up with the force of the blow, and retained some pieces of the scull and clotted hair! At this moment I reached the spot with about twenty men, composed of different regiments, all being by this time mixed *pell mell* with each other. I ran up to Faris,—he was nearly exhausted, but he was safe. The French grenadier lay upon the pavement, while Faris, though tottering from fatigue, held his sword firmly in his grasp, and it was crimson to the hilt. The appearance of the two combatants was frightful!—one lying dead on the ground, the other faint from agitation and loss of blood; but the soldiers loudly applauded him, and the feeling uppermost with *them* was, *that our man had the best of it!* It was a shocking sight, but it would be rather a hazardous experiment to begin moralizing at such a moment and in such a place.

Those of the garrison who escaped death were made prisoners, and the necessary guards being placed, and every thing secured, the troops not selected for duty commenced a very diligent search for those articles which they most fancied, and which they considered themselves entitled to by "right of conquest." I believe on a service such as the present, there is a sort of tacit acknowledgment of this "*right;*" but be this as it may, a good deal of property most indubitably *changed owners* on the night of the 19th of January 1812. The conduct of the soldiers too, within the last hour, had undergone a complete change; *before,* it was all order and regularity,—*now,* it was nothing but licentiousness and confusion—subordination was at an end; plunder and blood was the order of the day, and many an officer on this night was compelled to show that he carried a sabre.

The doors of the houses in a large Spanish town are remarkable for their strength, and resemble those of a prison more than anything else; their locks are of huge dimensions, and it is a most difficult task to force them. The mode adopted by the men of my regiment (the 88th) in this dilemma, was as effective as it was novel; the muzzles of a couple of muskets were applied to each side of the key-hole, while a third soldier, fulfilling the functions of an officer, deliberately gave the word, "make ready"—"present"—"fire!" and in an instant the

ponderous lock gave way before the combined operations of the three individuals, and doors that rarely opened to the knock of a stranger in Rodrigo, now flew off their hinges to receive the Rangers of Connaught!

The failure of forcing open the houses in the unfortunate assault of Buenos Ayres, no doubt taught our fellows a lesson by which they profited on the present occasion; and had the South American army understood the art of war as well as the heroes of the Peninsula, so many valuable lives would not have been lost in endeavouring to force open doors strong enough to defy the powers of a battering-ram!

The chapels and chandler's houses were the first captured, in both of which was found a most essential ingredient in the shape of large wax candles; these, the soldiers lighted, and commenced their perambulations in search of plunder, and the glare of light which they threw across the faces of the men as they carried them through the streets, displayed their countenances, which were of that cast that might well terrify the unfortunate inhabitants. Many of the soldiers with their faces scorched by the explosion of the magazine at the grand breach,—others with their lips blackened from biting off the ends of their cartridges,—more covered with blood,—and *all* looking ferocious, presented a combination sufficient to appal the stoutest heart.

Scenes of the greatest outrage now took place, and it was pitiable to see groups of the inhabitants half naked in the streets,—the females clinging to the officers for protection—while their respective houses were undergoing the strictest scrutiny. Some of the soldiers turned to the wine and spirit houses, where having drunk sufficiently, they again sallied out in quest of more plunder; others got so intoxicated, that they lay in a helpless state in different parts of the town, and lost what they had previously gained, either by the hands of any passing Spaniard who could venture unobserved to stoop down, or by those of their own companions, who in their wandering surveys happened to recognize a comrade lying with half-a-dozen silk gowns, or some such thing, wrapt about him. Others wished to attack the different stores, and as there is something marvellously attractive in the very *name* of a *brandy* one, it is not to be wondered at that many of our heroes turned not only their thoughts, but their *steps* also, in the direction in which these houses lay; and from the unsparing hand with which they supplied themselves, it might be imagined they intended to change their habits of life and turn spirit venders, and that too, *in the wholesale line!*

It was astonishing to see with what rapidity and accuracy these fellows traversed the different parts of the town, and found out the shops and storehouses. A stranger would have supposed they were natives of the place, and it was not until the following morning I discovered the cause of what was to me before incomprehensible.

In all military movements in a country which an army is not thoroughly acquainted with, (and why not in a large *town?*) there are no more useful appendages than good *guides!* Lord Wellington was most particular on this point, and had attached to his army a corps of this description. I suppose it was this knowledge of tactics which suggested to the soldiers the necessity of so wise a precaution; accordingly, every group of individuals was preceded by a Spaniard, who,

upon learning the species of plunder wished for by his employers, instantly conducted them to the most favourable ground for their operations. By this means the houses were unfurnished with less confusion than can be supposed, and had it not been for the state of intoxication that some of the young soldiers—mere tyros in the art of sacking a town—had indulged themselves in, it is inconceivable with what facility the city of Ciudad Rodrigo would have been eased of its superfluities; and the *conducteur* himself was not always an idle spectator. Many of those fellows realized something considerable from their more wealthy neighbours, and being also right well paid by the soldiers, who were liberal enough, they found themselves in the morning in far better circumstances than they had been the preceding night, so that, all things considered, there were about as many cheerful faces as sad ones; but although the inhabitants were, by this sort of transfer, put more on an equality with each other, the town itself was greatly impoverished. Many things of value were destroyed, but in the hurry so natural to the occasion, many also escaped; besides, our men were as yet young hands in the arcana of plundering a town in that *au fait* manner with which a French army would have done a business of the sort, but they, most unquestionably, made up for their want of *tact*, by the great inclination they showed to profit by any occasion that offered itself for their improvement.

By some mistake a large spirit store, situated in the Plaza Mayor, took fire, and the flames spreading with incredible fury, despite of the exertions of the troops, the building was totally destroyed; but in this instance, like many others which we are obliged to struggle against through life, there was a something that neutralized the disappointment which the loss of so much brandy occasioned the soldiers: the light which shone forth from the building was of material service to them, inasmuch as it tended to facilitate their movements in their excursions for plunder; the heat also was far from disagreeable, for the night was piercingly cold, yet, nevertheless, the soldiers exerted themselves to the utmost to put a stop to this calamity. Gen. Picton was to be seen in the midst of them, encouraging them by his example and presence to make still greater efforts; but all would not do, and floor after floor fell in, until at last it was nothing but a burning heap of ruins.

Some houses were altogether saved from plunder by the interference of the officers, for in several instances the women ran out into the streets, and seizing hold of three or four of us would force us away to their houses, and by this stroke of political hospitality saved their property. A good supper was then provided, and while all outside was noise and pillage, affairs within went on agreeably enough. Those instances were, however, but few.

In the house where I and four other officers remained, we fared remarkably well, and were passing the night greatly to our satisfaction when we were aroused by a noise, like a crash of something heavy falling in the apartments above us. As may be supposed, we did not remain long without seeking to ascertain the cause of this disturbance; the whole party sprang up at once—the family of the house secreting themselves behind the different pieces of furniture, while we, *sabre à la main*, and some with lights, advanced towards the apartment from

whence the noise proceeded; but all was silent within. Capt. Seaton, of my corps, proposed that the door should be forced, but he had scarcely pronounced the words, when a voice from within called out, not in Spanish or French, but in plain English, with a rich Irish brogue, "Oh, Jasus, is it you, Captain!" On entering we found a man of the Connaught Rangers, belonging to Seaton's company, standing before us, so disfigured by soot and filth that it was impossible to recognize his uniform, much less his face—his *voice* was the only thing recognizable about him, and *that* only to his captain; and had it not been for that, he might have passed for one just arrived from the infernal regions, and it may be questioned whether or not the place he had quitted might not be so denominated. It appeared, from the account he gave of himself, that he had been upon a plundering excursion in one of the adjoining houses, the roof of which, like most of those in Rodrigo, was flat, and wishing to have a distinct view of all that was passing in the streets, he took up his position upon the top of the house he had entered, and not paying due attention to where he put his foot, he contrived to get it into the chimney of the house we occupied, and ere he could resume his centre of gravity he tumbled headlong down the chimney, and caused us all the uneasiness I have been describing. His *tout ensemble* was as extraordinary as his adventure; he had eighteen or twenty pairs of shoes round his waist, and amongst other things a case of *trepanning instruments*, which he immediately offered as a present to his Captain! Had the grate of this fireplace been what is called in England the "Rumford grate," this poor fellow must have been irretrievably lost to the service, because it is manifest, encumbered as he was, he would have stuck fast, and must inevitably have been suffocated before assistance could be afforded him; but, fortunately for him, the chimney was of sufficient dimensions to admit an elephant to pass down it, and in truth, one not so constructed would have been altogether too confined for him.

Morning at length began to dawn, and with it the horrors of the previous night's assault were visible. The troops not on guard were directed to quit the town, but *this* was not a command they obeyed with the same cheerfulness or expedition which they evinced when ordered to *enter* it; in their eyes it had many attractions still, and besides this, the soldiers had become so unwieldy from the immense burdens they carried, it was scarcely possible for many of them to *stir*, much less *march:* however, by degrees the evacuation of the fortress took place, and towards noon it was effected altogether.

The breaches presented a horrid spectacle. The one forced by the light division was narrower than the other, and the dead, lying in a smaller compass, looked more numerous than they really were. I walked along the ramparts towards the grand breach, and was examining the effects our fire had produced on the different defences and the buildings in their immediate vicinity, but I had not proceeded far when I was shocked at beholding about a hundred and thirty or forty wounded Frenchmen lying under one of the bastions and some short distance up a narrow street adjoining it. I descended, and learned that these men had been performing some particular duty in a magazine, which through accident blew up, and those miserable beings were so burnt, that I fear, notwithstanding the considerate attention

which was paid to them by our medical officers, none of their lives were preserved. Their uniforms were barely distinguishable, and their swollen heads and limbs gave them a gigantic appearance that was truly terrific; added to this, the gunpowder had so blackened their faces that they looked more like a number of huge negroes than soldiers of an European army. Many of our men hastened to the spot, and with that compassion which truly brave men always feel, rendered them every assistance in their power; some were carried on doors, others in blankets to the hospitals, and these poor creatures showed by their gestures, for they could not articulate, how truly they appreciated our tender care of them.

At length I reached the grand breach—it was covered with many officers and soldiers; of the former, amongst others, was my old friend Hardiman of the 45th, and Lieut. William Pearse of the same regiment; there were also two of the 5th, whose names I forget, and others whose faces were familiar to me. Hardiman, the once cheerful, gay Bob Hardiman, lay on his back; half of his head was carried away by one of those discharges of grape from the flank guns at the breach, which were so destructive to us in our advance; his face was perfect, and even in death presented its wonted cheerfulness. Poor fellow! he died without pain, and regretted by all who knew him; his gaiety of spirit never for an instant forsook him; up to the moment of the assault he was the same pleasant Bob Hardiman, who delighted every one by his anecdotes, and none more than my old corps, although many of his jokes were at our expense. When we were within a short distance of the breach, as we met, he stopped for an instant to shake hands, "What's that you have hanging over your shoulder?" said he, as he espied a canteen of rum which I carried.—"A little rum, Bob," said I. "Well," he replied, "*I'll change my breath,* and take my word for it, that in less than five minutes, some of the 'subs' will be scratching a captain's ——, for there will be *wigs on the green!*" He took a mouthful of rum, and taking me by the hand squeezed it affectionately, and in ten minutes afterwards he was a corpse! The appearance of Pearse was quite different from his companion; ten or a dozen grape-shot pierced his breast, and he lay or rather *sat* beside his friend like one asleep, and his appearance was that of a man upwards of sixty, though his years did not number twenty-five. Hardiman was stripped to his trowsers, but Pearse had his uniform on, his epaulettes alone had been plundered. I did not see the body of Gen. Mackinnon, but the place where he fell was easily distinguishable, the vast chasm which the spot presented resembled an excavation in the midst of a quarry. The limbs of those who lost their lives by that fatal explosion, thrown here and there, presented a melancholy picture of the remnants of those brave men whose hearts, but a few short hours before, beat high in the hope of conquest. It was that kind of scene which arrested the attention of the soldier, and riveted him to the spot; and there were few who, even in the moment of exultation, did not feel deeply as they surveyed the mangled remains of their comrades.

I next turned to the captured gun, so chivalrously taken by the three men of the 88th. The five cannoneers lying across the carriage, or between the spokes of the wheels, showed how bravely they had defended it—yet they lay like men whose death had not been caused

by violence—they were naked and bloodless, and the puncture of the bayonet left so small a mark over their hearts, it was discernible only to those who examined the bodies closely.

The details I have given of the capture of Rodrigo will, I believe, be found to be tolerably correct; I have in no way placed any one corps, much less division, above its companions—where all fought well, and did their utmost to conquer, I think such a comparison would be improper; but were I inclined to do so, I should give the preference to the Portuguese, under O'Toole, and for the reason that they surpassed the expectations we had of their success, *because* they were not a British corps. But I can in no way agree with the officer who wrote the "Sketch of the Storming of Ciudad Rodrigo," where he says, "Without doing injustice to the gallant third division, I fear that the attack of the great breach would have failed, had the small breach not been carried." The third division, upwards of 3000 strong, and composed of as good troops as any in the world, were certainly a match for 1100 or 1200 Frenchmen, which at most defended a practicable and wide breach. The same writer observes, "When the third division gained the top of the ramparts, they were in a manner enclosed and hemmed in, and had nowhere to go, while the enemy continued to fire upon them from some old ruined houses, only twenty yards distant. I am confident a plan would convince any person, that the light division extricated the third division from their disagreeable situation." The light division would, no doubt, as far as they could, have "extricated" the third division *if* they required it, but they did not, because that corps carried all before them after, without doubt, a most serious strife; but their success was never for an instant doubtful, although it was unavoidably protracted. The explosion upon the breach necessarily caused some confusion and delay; how could it be otherwise? But from the time the brigade of Mackinnon passed the Fausse braye, until the third division had overcome all obstacles, half an hour did not elapse, and certainly, all things considered, this was not an unreasonable lapse of time. The same writer, in speaking of the dispositions made previous to the attack, says, "The third division had relieved the first as usual in the morning, but it did not return as usual to its quarters. If the Governor had kept a sharp look-out, he must have been expecting the assault; but 'I guess' he was no great things." The third division did not occupy the trenches until a short time previous to the assault, nor did they relieve the first division on that day. Then again he observes, "Neither was there any officers among the dead, or else they were carried away." So late as nine o'clock on the morning of the 20th, there were those I have mentioned, but whether they were there or not, is surely of little consequence. It is well known in the army what the loss of the third division was, and it ought in no way to take from their merits, whether their officers lay on the breach, or were buried in an honourable grave. But the writer whom I have quoted never meant, I am convinced, to throw the least shadow of blame upon Picton's division; nevertheless, any person reading his narrative of the storming of Ciudad Rodrigo might think, and very naturally too, that without the aid of the light division, the third would have been defeated. All writers, military ones in particular, and none more so than, perhaps, myself, are liable to fall

into error, and I, for one, shall feel obliged to any of my readers who will set me right when I err. We writers of little sketches, such as these "Reminiscences," if we write any thing *readable* (and if we *did not*, where is the Editor that would take them?) must naturally conclude that it is *read*, and although we cannot lay claim to the title of *historians*, what we publish to the world is nevertheless an epitome of the history of our "own times;" and although "scraps," such as the present, *in their present shape*, might not be thought of after they were read, they might by possibility get into a more compact form, in the shape of a *volume*, and *then*, indeed, people might, perchance, quote them as an authority to be depended upon!

I turned away from the breach, and scrambled over its rugged face, and the dead which covered it. On reaching the *bivouack* we had occupied the preceding evening, I learned, with suprise, that our women had been engaged in a contest, if not as dangerous as ours, at least one of no trivial sort. The men left as a guard over the baggage, on hearing the first shot at the trenches, could not withstand the inclination they felt to join their companions; and although this act was creditable to the bravery of the individuals that composed the baggage-guard, it was nigh being fatal to those who survived, or, at least, to such as had any thing to lose except their lives, for the wretches that infested our camp, attempted to plunder it of all that it possessed, but the women, with a bravery that would not have disgraced those of ancient Rome, defended the post with such valour, that those miscreants were obliged to desist, and our baggage was saved in consequence.

We were about to resume our arms when Gen. Picton approached us. Some of the soldiers who were more than usually elevated in spirits, on his passing them, called out, "Well, General, we gave *you* a cheer last night; it's *your* turn *now!*" The General, smiling, took off his hat, and said, "Here then, you drunken set of brave rascals, *hurrah! we'll soon be at Badajoz!*" A shout of confidence followed: we slung our firelocks, the bands played, and we commenced our march for the village of Atalaya in the highest spirits, and in a short time lost sight of a place, the capture of which appeared to us like a dream.

(To be continued.)

VILLA VELHA,* A PENINSULAR REMINISCENCE.

On one of the several occasions, when Gen. Hill's division had to cross the Tagus at the pass of Villa Velha, the chaotic appearance of the mountains, resembling hundreds of Shakspeare Cliffs jumbled one upon another, arrested the attention of every one. A private soldier, who was near to me, asked his comrade (an Irishman) how he could account for the formation of mountains; the ready reply was, "that God Almighty, after having made the world, found that there was a good deal of rubbish to spare, and that he threw it aside in heaps as it then appeared." This solution of a difficult question was, in my opinion, as good as some others I have read and heard of, and I give it to you, in the words I received it myself, for the information of cosmogonists. J. N.

---

* Old Town.

SKYRZNECKI.

FROM THE UNPUBLISHED MANUSCRIPT OF A TRAVELLER.

ARRIVED at the post-house at Linz, in Austria, my first care was to ascertain whether the authorities at the Police-office would render our passports available for Berlin, without the necessity of sending them on to Vienna for the countersignature of the Prussian minister. But it appeared that no arrangement of the kind could be accomplished. We were therefore constrained to make up our minds to remain at Linz until the return of the passports from Vienna, whither they were accordingly sent without delay. As soon as this business had been despatched we removed from the Post-haus to the Hotel *Goldenen Löwen* (Golden Lion), where, as a fellow-traveller from Braunau had apprised us, the celebrated Polish chief, Skyrznecki, was residing *incog.* Not many minutes after we had been installed in our new domicile, my companion proposed that we should send up our names to the General, and solicit permission to pay our respects, a proposition so consonant to my own wishes, that I did not hesitate a moment to acquiesce. The *garçon* warned us that there was little chance of our suit being granted, inasmuch as Skyrznecki had been for two months and a half a tenant of his apartment, and invariably declined all visits; but we entertained a presentiment, pardonable enough if the acknowledged influence of the English name on the Continent be considered, that *our* application would not be rejected. The *garçon* left us, and shortly afterwards returned with a look of surprise and good humour, saying, that the General would be most happy to receive "the two Englishmen." Our emotions may easily be conceived. My venerable companion had resided for many years in Russia; he had been witness to the system of government prevalent in that empire; he had formed many valuable friendships amongst the Poles, and though deprived by the rigidity of Russian regulations of those means of becoming acquainted with the course of public events which are available in freer countries, he had nevertheless contrived to learn as much of the progress of the affairs of Poland, as sufficed to identify Skyrznecki in his mind with every thing that was brave, honourable, patriotic, and skilful. For my own part, shut out as I had been from almost all intercourse with civilized society for the previous eight months,* and necessarily unacquainted as I was with all but the unhappy results of the Polish revolution, I did not anticipate a higher degree of bliss than that of seeing and conversing with a soldier and a patriot of good repute.

The hour fixed upon by the General for our visit arrived; we went up to his room, knocked at the door, and were instantly admitted. Had we been utter strangers to the name and character of our new acquaintance, our demeanour might possibly have been more assured; but it is quite impossible that we could have felt the less respect for the individual who now rose to receive us. There was an air of majesty in his port, blended with the most perfect grace, that irresistibly attracted the homage of meaner mortals. Had I met him in the street, I should involuntarily have taken off my hat, or at least have turned to

* The writer was making a tour through the wildest parts of Persia.

contemplate his "noble presence." In stature he might have been about six feet high, perhaps more; in carriage he was erect, without possessing a shadow of the ordinary stiffness of the *militaires* of the Continent; his countenance pale and somewhat wan, (evidently the result of confinement, inactivity, and distress of mind,)—but his eye! and his forehead!—His keen grey eye, which at one glance uttered a thousand sentiments—that at once spoke a consciousness of rectitude, a capacity to command, a sense of its owner's adverse condition, a feeling of good will to all men, and a welcome to his immediate visitors,—his vast expanse of forehead, that encased a pure and noble mind—these features could only belong to one of gentle blood, accustomed to a "space in the world's thought," and "dominion over his fellow men." He was plainly attired in an olive frock and black trowsers, and had apparently been reading, for on rising he laid down a book. We apologised for the liberty, &c. but were speedily reassured, and in a few minutes had gone over various interesting subjects of discussion. On taking leave of the General, we were invited to drink tea with him that evening *à la mode Angloise*, an invitation which we gladly accepted; and we returned to our apartments, in excellent humour with the accident* that had thus brought us acquainted with one of the best and greatest men of the age. My worthy fellow-traveller did not understand a syllable of French, but so animated and expressive were Skyrznecki's gesticulations, that he declared himself almost as much delighted with the interview as if he had interchanged sentiments with the hero, or had comprehended every word he uttered. In the evening we were, as may be supposed, true to our appointment. The conversation, naturally enough, referred to the affairs of Poland; and such progress had we made in one another's confidence in the course of an hour, that on my expressing my ignorance of many of the most important and interesting features in the history of the recent revolution, Skyrznecki volunteered an account of the whole business, from its commencement down to the capture of Warsaw. I endeavoured, on retiring to my chamber, to commit to paper all that I had thus heard, with a view to its subsequent publication, but on submitting the manuscript to my illustrious friend, he seemed to think that the dignity of the theme demanded something beyond a mere narrative; that it was of consequence enough of itself to form the subject of an entire volume, upon which I destroyed my memoranda lest I might be tempted hereafter to make use of the meagre materials at the expense of a serious and important cause. I the less regret the step because No. 20 of the admirable Cabinet Cyclopedia of Dr. Lardner contains a History of the Insurrection, which in spirit and in phrase corresponds, as far as my memory serves me, almost entirely with the description given me by the General.

As a pendant, however, to that "History," I am tempted to offer a narrative which, I am persuaded, will be read with interest by all who sympathise with the fortunes of so exalted a character and brave a soldier as Skyrznecki. It is a relation communicated by himself of his flight from Warsaw to Cracow, after he had been deprived of the com-

* The writer had been obliged to return to Linz in consequence of the tedious quarantine required of him on the Bavarian frontier.

mand of the Polish army, and Gen. Krukovinski had assumed the general direction of affairs. The narrative may not possibly be fraught with so many striking events as the description I have somewhere read of the Pretender's flight after the battle of Colloden, but I venture to hope, that it will at least be found as attractive as the sketch given in Dr. Lardner's book of Stanislaus's escape.

NARRATIVE OF SKYRZNECKI'S ESCAPE FROM WARSAW.

Krukovinski's preponderance, the rage and intrigues of the clubbists, or Jacobins, and the danger to his liberty which the expected success of the Russians threatened, suggested to Skyrznecki an immediate retreat from Warsaw. The hope, however, of a favourable change in political sentiment, added to affairs of a private nature, dictated a prolonged stay, provided it could be accomplished without exposing him to personal injury. With this view, an honest citizen, on whom Skyrznecki could rely, was consulted, and requested to assist his temporary concealment within the town. The man complied, though the hazard was great, and immediately assigned an apartment in his own house to the General's use, and supplied him with every comfort he could desire. Skyrznecki's wife in the mean time continued to reside in their own house, but all communication between them was purposely avoided. Accustomed to an active life, the rigid confinement to which Skyrznecki was now subject, ill assorted with his inclination or his health; he was therefore induced, after a time, to take occasional walks at nightfall, and on one of these occasions determined on a visit to his wife. He paid it, and the people of the house betrayed him to the existing Government! The consequence was, that the police were instantly on the alert to ascertain his retreat and to arrest him, while the clubbists anxiously sought to assassinate him. Every friend he had was visited, and closely questioned regarding their conusance of his movements and situation, but their replies kept the interrogators still in the dark. Skyrznecki, however, found that it was now high time to beat a retreat from Warsaw, and the only question was, how to effect it? His host, in conjunction with his wife, concerted the means, and at length induced the son of an old servant of Skyrznecki's stepmother, who resembled Skyrznecki in stature and complexion, to apply for passports to enable him, as it were, to leave Warsaw on his own account. The passports being obtained, they were delivered to Skyrznecki, and a night fixed for his departure. Disguised as a valet, Skyrznecki repaired at the time appointed to a neighbouring street, where a carriage and his own horses waited to receive him. He jumped up and started off at a hard pace, successfully passed the barrier, where his person was compared with the description given in the passport, and succeeded in reaching an inn not far from the next town. While he remained at the inn, two *gens-d'armes* came in, and demanded his passports, which having been shown, *accompanied by a rouble*, they left the place. The innkeeper, a Pole, perceiving however that his guest was a more distinguished individual than his papers set forth, earnestly counselled him not to pass through the town, "For you must know, Sir," said he, "the commandant of the place is accustomed to sit at his window, to watch all travellers, to stop and question them; and believe me, Sir," he added, "you will

never pass the scrutiny, for you do not look like a servant." Skyrznecki deemed it prudent to act on this disinterested counsel, and after refreshing his horses, set forth on another route, or rather plunged into a forest, (whose mazes were unknown to all but the peasantry of the country, who warmly assisted the flight of their superiors,) and drove on until he reached the precincts of a town,* where a priest to whom he was known, and who was attached to him, resided. He consulted with this priest the means of advance while his horses were feeding; and another priest having been called in, it was agreed he should again alter his route, since the river Pelica, which it was necessary to cross, offered an impediment to his progress, inasmuch as all the bridges had been destroyed during the campaign by Skyrznecki's own orders, to prevent the Russians from harassing his rear. Being ignorant of the newly proposed route, a peasant was engaged, for a trifling sum, to convey Skyrznecki and his driver to the proposed destination. After a reconnoissance they set off. On their road, they encountered two Polish dragoons in the interest of the clubbists, but testifying neither alarm nor curiosity at this circumstance, they escaped their suspicion or scrutiny. Reaching a narrow part of the river, they crossed it on rafters, and continuing their route, reached a town where they stopped to refresh themselves and horses. At the inn where Skyrznecki put up, the Burgmeister of the town presented himself, and questioned Skyrznecki as to his person, his intentions, his destination, &c. Skyrznecki evaded his questions in a good-humoured way, and told him he should know after dinner. The repast being finished, the Burgmeister renewed his inquiries, upon which Skyrznecki informed him that he was a Major Stanishewski, and desired to proceed to a particular town. The Burgmeister, however, frankly told him he believed him to be a Russian spy. Skyrznecki reasoned with him on the absurdity and injustice of such a supposition, and in evidence of his being a genuine Pole, mentioned the names, condition, residences, and means of various persons in the country round. The Burgmeister, nevertheless, was sceptical, but after detaining our hero four hours, became a little more accessible to reason, and permitted Skyrznecki to depart, accompanied by an officer of the police. Skyrznecki had not, however, proceeded three versts from the town, when he was overtaken and arrested by six lancers, who had orders from the irresolute Burgmeister to carry him back. Skyrznecki, finding it vain to attempt resistance, submitted to the mandate, and returned. On his arrival at the town, he found a room prepared for him, and strictly guarded. He sent for the Burgmeister, who accordingly presented himself, and things having thus reached a very hazardous crisis, Skyrznecki deemed it necessary to declare himself openly to his gaoler, and request his assistance. Concealing, however, the chief causes of his flight, Skyrznecki represented to the Burgmeister that he was an emissary from the Polish Government, (of which it was known he had been a member,) and was proceeding to a palatine town, in order to assist in the formation of a new constitution for Poland. The Burg-

* Anxious not to compromise the safety of those who aided his flight, Skyrznecki carefully avoided naming the towns through which he passed, lest it might furnish a clue to the residence of his friends.

meister, on this declaration being made, threw himself at the feet of the General, entreated his pardon for the severity he had exercised, dwelt with mixed emotions of pity and regret on what the General had suffered, and instantly supplied him with the means of prosecuting his journey.

He was now to enter upon the most dangerous part of his peregrination. He had the choice of either attempting to pass the Russian outposts, or the outposts of a branch of the Polish army composed of, and attached to, the clubbist party. Divers reasons influenced him in the choice of the latter difficulty, and after nightfall he approached a spot where the Polish piquets were bivouacking. He was challenged on his arrival, and having given the name he assumed, was conducted to the tent of the Lieutenant-Colonel commanding, who proved to be a cousin of Madame Skyrzneski's, and an old acquaintance of the General's. After taking some refreshment, and discussing with this person the affairs of Warsaw (of the latest news of which place our fugitive was the bearer), he desired to depart; but the Lieutenant-Colonel told him to his surprise, that he could not suffer him to proceed until he had apprised Gen. Roushidski, who commanded the whole of the outposts, of his arrival. Finding remonstrance unavailing, Skyrznecki consented that the General should be informed, but entreated that the reply might be expedited. As Gen. Roushidski had received his command from Skyrznecki himself, the latter of course expected nothing less than full permission to depart. But he knew not how completely Gen. Roushidski was in the hands of the faction to whom his deposition was owing. Instead of the freedom he anticipated, an order came for his being sent to a town, whither he did not wish to repair, under the escort of an old officer bristling with arms, whiskers and mustachoes, accompanied by a lancer. Skyrznecki surveyed his guard from top to toe, and seeing they were more than a match for his single arm, his indignation could not be restrained. He protested against such an unwarrantable interference with his personal liberty, and conjured the Lieutenant-Colonel to disregard the injunction and let him depart alone. But his wife's cousin was as completely the tool of the Polish jacobins as his superior officer, and pleading the military doctrine of implicit obedience to orders, informed Skyrznecki that he was sorry, &c. but that he must perforce carry into effect Roushidski's instructions.

As a dernier resort, Skyrznecki now solicited an interview with the General, which, after some time spent in deliberation, was agreed to. Skyrznecki accordingly got into his carriage and waited, outside the quarters of Roushidski, the interview in question. Gen. Roushidski soon made his appearance, but to the surprise of Skyrznecki, accompanied by a staff of at least twenty officers, amongst whom Skyrznecki recognized a number of his most determined enemies. At the first moment he uttered an exclamation of astonishment, but, Roushidski approaching the carriage took him by the hand, and squeezing it significantly, gave him to understand that the less said in anger the better. Skyrznecki accordingly turned to familiar matters, and spoke of the latest news from Warsaw and the affairs of Poland generally. Alluding to the latter, the factious members of the staff assumed a lofty tone, and catechised Skyrznecki regarding many of his military dispositions

during the war; they likewise censured much of his government, and complained that he had shown undue favour to the Polish aristocracy in collecting them about his person in preference to more or equally deserving men of humble origin. Skyrznecki did not long condescend to argue with these persons; he boldly told them that he did not recognize their right to question him, and absolutely refused to hold farther parley. He then desired leave to continue his route without an escort, as it did not sort with his honour to be kept under such *surveillance*, at the same time that it was an indignity he did not merit. The clubbists, however, steadily refused, but in a milder tone, to comply with his wish. He persevered—he pledged himself that he would repair to the town they had indicated, though sore against his will, and appealed to his character as one who had never broken his word, and as a General who had often led them to victory, as security for the performance of his promise. Without appearing to consent, they suffered him to depart, and for four German miles he pursued his route undisturbed by any other reflections than those suggested by his situation, and by a struggle as to whether he should ultimately take a road which led to one of his own farms, or keep his promise towards the ruffians he had recently left. In this state of mind he arrived at a point where the road branched off in two different directions, one leading to the town he had promised to repair to, the other to his aforesaid farm. He deliberated a moment between inclination and his parole, and ultimately suffered a high sense of honour to triumph over the suggestions of nature. At the end of another mile he reached the town, but found a short time previously that he was pursued by two clubbists on horseback. On arriving at the barrier, his first question was, as to where Prince Czartorinski might be found. A house with lights in the window was pointed out to him, and thither he repaired at full speed, the clubbists still in hot pursuit. He entered the house and found the Prince and several friends in council. They received him with open arms, and earnestly solicited intelligence of the state of affairs at the capital. In the mean time the clubbists, who had followed Skyrznecki, were endeavouring to raise a clamour in the town, and shortly collected a crowd around the house. A Lieutenant-Colonel of firm character and extensive influence went below, and partly by reason, partly by threats and reproofs, subdued the angry spirit that had been showed. He then conveyed Skyrznecki to his own chateau, gave him fresh horses, and accompanied him without farther molestation to Cracow.

It might have been supposed that in this independent little republic his troubles would have ended, but the treason which sapped the foundation of his eminence, and hastened the Polish catastrophe, had spread its poisonous influence to the very confines of Poland. Even in Cracow, clubbists, who had sought a retreat from the disasters of the campaign, meditated the murder of their chieftain. He was, therefore, obliged to take refuge in the house of the Bishop of Cracow, until a new enemy, in the persons of the Russian troops under Rudiger, entered the town, and obtained information of the place of his retreat. It now became necessary to screen him from the vigilant search of his foes, and a large dark cellar beneath the Bishop's house was selected for the purpose. In the mean time the Austrian Consul

was solicited privately to assist his flight into the Imperial territories, to which he consented, and after a little time contrived to convey the illustrious subject of this sketch across the Vistula to Podgorze, in Gallicia, where he was received with cordiality and distinction.

Skyrznecki was subsequently directed by the Imperial Government to repair to Linz (avoiding Vienna* in his route), there to remain on parole until the Polish question should be brought to some definitive termination. In that little town I found, and there I left him, hourly expecting to be joined by his wife,† (whose society he had not enjoyed for sixteen years,) and patiently awaiting the course of events which should enable him either again to take an active share in directing the affairs of his unhappy country, or to repair to England to study the institutions and the manners of a people for whom he entertains the highest respect.‡

(To be continued.)

THE HULAN TO HIS CHARGER.

AFTER THEODORE KÖRNER.

(Written for the United Service Journal.)

STAND, my good charger! steady stand!
In thy thick mane I wreath my hand,
As bounding from the yellow sand,
We go to fight for Fatherland!
Hurrah! my steed, hurrah!

Let others pant the prize to gain,
In rival race on festal plain,
Be ours to join the martial train,
Where warriors' blood flows fast as rain!
Hurrah! my steed, hurrah!

Hark! 'tis the clarion's clanging bray,
'Tis answer'd by thy joyous neigh,
Forth to the battle's maddening fray,
Glory or death! for us to-day!
Hurrah! my steed, hurrah!

The sabre gleams, the cuirass clanks,
Now side by side in charging ranks,
Like Danube when he bursts his banks,
We dash upon the foeman's ranks!
Hurrah! brave steed, hurrah!

T.

---

* To prevent unnecessary excitement in the town.

† She has since joined him.

‡ I have heard from Skyrznecki since I left Linz. In letters from Berlin and Prague I communicated to him the opinion entertained of his conduct by several Polish refugees of distinction, and these memorable words were contained in his reply:—"I may have committed some faults—what general has not committed them? But I can declare solemnly, to whoever it may be, that I was an upright man in my political career."—"He has spoken the truth," said the old Count Mostowski (late Prime Minister at Warsaw), to whom I showed the letter. "He was all honour,—and as a soldier he possessed every military quality but the most essential—good fortune!"

AN OFFICER'S AFFIDAVIT.

"An OATH is a recognizance to Heaven,
Binding us over to the courts above,
To plead to the indictment of our crimes,
That those who 'scape this world should suffer there."

As we profess to put our shoulder to the wheel, wherever the interests and feelings of those services to which the nation is indebted for her renown and security are concerned, we will offer no apology for the present intrusion. Indeed, from what we happen to know of the attention which our pages draw, in the proper quarter, we are aware that our representation will speedily be under the eye of authority.

The custom of solemn adjuration to the invisible powers, would naturally be one of the earliest which a rude people would oppose to treachery, mistrust, deceit, and other vices; and accordingly, we find the practice to be most ancient. Hesiod tells us, that Ὅρκος, the presiding deity of affidavits, was the son of Eris, or Contention, a proper extraction for so anomalous an officer, who, with all his influence, could not save his faithless followers from the proverbial stigma implied under *Græca fides*. Homer makes Agamemnon chatter about the infernal regions, in the scrape he got into about Briseis; and from other sources we gather that some of the sturdy heroes could mouth a curse as bitterly as Ernulphus himself. Yet the Greeks seldom strained their oaths as we do; on very important occasions they were accompanied with imprecations, but in general their deities were rather invoked as witnesses than as avengers. The oath of an archon of Athens was not that of which the curses extend to eternity,—he was obliged to declare that, in case of default, he would forfeit a golden statue, of equal proportion to himself,—a sure method of binding to their duties men who feared neither Tartarus nor Tyburn. Amongst the philosophers, we find that Zeno only swore by capers; and Socrates by a dog, or a goose, or a tree. Pythagoras, who rarely appealed to the gods, invoked air and water, and the number four,—a number mystical, as implying the soul of man to consist in mind, science, sense, and opinion,—but Clinias, one of his disciples, chose rather to forfeit three talents, than swear at all.

An oath was remarkably dreaded by the ancient Romans; and Polybius assures us, that even in his time, the obligation was sufficient to restrain those who had any of the public money in their hands from abusing the trust. In the affairs of common life the men swore by their genii and lares, the women by Juno, and the various labourers and artisans by the presiding deity of their calling. In the middle-ages, the oath "by the ashes of parents" was esteemed one of the highest sanctity: and he who desires to know the absurd blasphemy of those times, may consult Du Cange.

Many of the forms observed by the ancients were voluntary, and ought to have disappeared with paganism; but since the time that Sisenand, the Gothic king of Spain, administered his dreadful imprecation at Toledo, in the 7th century, Christians have been more harshly visited with official oaths than even the Greeks and Romans were: and it is undeniably oppressive to be so frequently called upon

to stake one's eternal salvation against trifles. When men could not subscribe their names, they merely made a signature; that is, they signed a cross, and as such a mark would be difficult to identify, parties generally made their transactions valid by meeting before a priest, and swearing to observe the engagement so signed; and this afterwards became legalized. Still these were matters of plain dealing between men of a less refined age than the present, rather than tests of party or politics, for as the renowned Hudibras has it—

> "Oaths were not purposed more than law,
> To keep the just and good in awe;
> But to confine the bad and sinful,
> Like moral cattle in a pinfold."

In 1675, when the bill "to prevent the dangers which may arise from persons disaffected to the Government," was under warm discussion, the Lords resented the proposition of their being constrained to take an oath, as the greatest indignity that could be put upon their order; and the Earl of Halifax maintained that, as there really was no security to any state by oaths, so also no private person, much less statesman, would ever order his affairs as relying on them. Upon the same occasion, the opinion of Grotius, *de jure belli et pacis*, was advanced, as demonstrating that such a practice was against the precepts of Christianity; and it was demanded of the bishops, when they maturely weighed Matthew v. 34, 37, and other places of the New Testament, whether it would not become them to be more tender in multiplying oaths, than the great men of the church had hitherto been? But the point was carried, and from that period affidavits and tests, of various import and device, have streamed through all the public offices, and stuck to every official employment; being resorted to from the opening of a damaged cask of beef to the spurning of papal doctrines,—and from the high responsibility of a coronation, to the low and profligate mockeries termed custom-house oaths. While this was, however erroneously, part and parcel of the law of the land, we could only "grin and bear it,"—but now that the Catholics, Moravians, Quakers, Dissenters, and all who are passively or decidedly at variance with, or inimical to, our institutions, have been released from the odious thraldom, it seems hard and unjust that officers, who of all men may be supposed to cherish the true point of honour, should be rigorously subjected to such obligation. Nay, while the reins have been slackened to one class, the other has been fitted with a fresh curb; and before the naval veteran can obtain the pittance he has earned in hardship and danger, he must suck his honey from a thorn, and, in addition to all former allegations, must solemnly swear, no less than four times in each revolving year, that he is not in HOLY ORDERS!

With whatever intention this "broad hint" was given, it concerns so very few professional men, that it must, in operation, be a slur upon the church itself; and it were far more just and judicious to punish an offender on detection, than to throw so bitter a sneer into the form of a quarterly affidavit.

If the definition be correct, that the sanction of an oath is the strongest hold that the law can take of the consciences of men, to bind them to adhere to their obligations, or to declare the truth when they are questioned on occasions which concern the welfare of society, why

should they be irreverently administered? Unless the utmost precision and circumspection are used, as well in taking as in administering an oath, it is a ceremony inconsistent with common reason and proper reverence to the Omnipotent. But we deny the necessity of the practice, in a judicial sense, except where the dearest interests and privileges of mankind are at stake. The multiplication of oaths has a pernicious tendency to cause levity of conduct and laxity of morals; their force and influence are weakened by their frequency; and there is little question but the disgusting expletives with which language has been disfigured, have emanated therefrom.* Without dwelling upon the desecrating effect of taking affidavits in police-offices, and other unconsecrated places, we may consider an oath, wherein a person solemnly and deliberately calls upon God to witness the truth of his asseveration, as an act of such responsibility that it should be viewed as sacredly as that of taking the holy sacrament; for the swearer, in this invocation, virtually renounces all claim to divine grace should he appeal falsely: or at least, if such is not his belief, the oath is nugatory in operation. That the mass of mankind think but slightly of the tie, is a fact more readily seen than proved; and it is the accommodating faculty of the mind, under what ought to be a binding ceremony, that provoked Butler to parody the rule—"jurare in animum imponentis," thus—

> "He that imposes an oath, makes it,
> Not he that for convenience takes it;
> Then how can any man be said,
> To break an oath he never made?"

The form of our affidavits, and the levity with which they are administered by Laymen of every description, are but weakly adapted to impress upon untutored minds the meaning of what they are doing, and the obligations they incur, by consigning themselves to that place, where, as Esther observed, "if they perish, they perish." Savage says—

> "Nay, but weigh well what you presume to swear!
> Oaths are of dreadful weight—and if they 're false,
> Draw down damnation."

The arguments in favour of this practice, are more specious than sound. It is alleged that invoking the awful name of the Omnipotent, in a right cause, is not only a lawful act, but also a religious acknowledgment of his infallible knowledge of the sincerity or falsehood of our hearts. This may be true where the end is to maintain equity and charity among men, and where it is done under the salutary fear of that terrible denunciation, "The Lord will not hold him guiltless

---

* Without descending to record the flowers of Billingsgate and Sally Port rhetoric, we may instance the common practice of swearing by the Supreme, by the Rood, and by Faith. *Zounds* is a corruption of God's wounds; *Zooks*, of his hooks; and *S'Death*, of his death. Many aver to the truth of what they advance, by "*Devil take me;*" and even the popular expression of the Sons of St. David, "*Odd splutter hur nails,*" is instantly recognizable as God's blood, and the nails which fastened him to the cross. The Shakspearian oaths, *Ods-body*, *ods-pitikins*, &c. are evidently from the same source.

that taketh his name in vain." But is it reverence to drag a solemnity which should be awfully sacred, into the use and abuse of the commonest acts of every-day life? Such a custom may have had its influence in savage and superstitious times; but both religion and government are injured by its continuance, it being as inconvenient, and therefore improper, to the sovereign as to the subject. Perjury and treason are sufficiently punishable without regard to oath-taking; and the courts of justice are always open to accusations against those who are guilty of violating the laws. Let those who respect this obligation in theory go to our custom-houses, and excise-offices, and election-hustings, and police-offices;—let them go alongside of a ship returning from the Mediterranean, at the moment the quarantine officer shoves a copper case, supposed to contain the gospel, at the end of a pole, for the captain to kiss;—let them see these farces, and be cured.

In this levity of term and administration, we differ from the solemnity of both ancients and moderns. The Papal denunciations are so notorious for bitterness, that Uncle Toby's heart melted at the idea of even the devil suffering under them; though, to be sure, in Rome, much may be softened for *giuli tre*. The people of Madagascar denounce horrid maledictions upon the oath-breaker: they implore that he may perish miserably, and in anguish, that his belly may burst open, and that his filthy carcase may be the food of alligators, or become the *coprolites* of wild beasts. More dignified, but equally vengeful, was the celebrated Amphictyonic oath, as transmitted by Æschines, which awfully imprecates, that "if any one shall violate any part of this solemn engagement, whether city, private person, or country, may such violators be obnoxious to the vengeance of Apollo, Diana, Latona, and Minerva the provident! May their lands never produce fruits; may their women never bring forth children of the same nature as their parents, but offsprings of an unnatural and monstrous kind: may they be for ever defeated in war, in judicial controversies, and in all civil transactions; and may they, their families, and their whole race, be utterly destroyed: may they never offer up an acceptable sacrifice to Apollo, Diana, Latona, and Minerva the provident; but may all their sacred rites! be for ever rejected."

Solemnities so startling operated in rendering him infamous who thought lightly of them; and where superstition got the upper-hand of piety, every evasion was resorted to for avoiding the responsibility of breaking an oath. Thus, many who adjured by some peculiar object of veneration, would not scruple to violate what was sworn upon the Gospel. As in ancient times kings swore by their sceptres, and soldiers by their spears, so, in modern days, the Calabrese swear by their guns, and various people by fire and light. The luckless Harold was sworn over an altar, which, when uncovered, was found to be filled with the most sacred relics that could be procured; and a similar deception is still practised in Sardinia. William the Conqueror was wont to swear by the splendour of God,—and William Rufus by St. Luke's face, by which he meant the portrait of our Saviour as painted by the Evangelist. Francis the First appealed to the truth of his assertions, "on the word of a gentleman," but in this admirable form he was preceded by our Henry the Third, at the solemn and terrible ratification of

Magna Charta. But both may have borrowed a hint from the Roman practice of swearing by faith or honour. And it is to this point we wish to draw attention. Why should not the simple allegations of officers, as gentlemen, be valid for all the mere official details of secondary importance? Why should such an oath as the following be wrung from an Admiral, on the trifling consideration of a few shillings?

FORM OF AFFIDAVIT FOR ADMIRALS.

To wit.

I, Jeremiah Blowhard, do swear that I am not in Holy Orders, and that I had not, between the 1st day of January and the 31st day of March, 1832, any place or employment of profit whatsoever under His Majesty, nor in any department of His Majesty's service, nor in the colonies or possessions of His Majesty beyond the seas, nor under any other government.

Sworn before me this 2nd day of April, 1332,

Magistrate's signature } SIMON GRIEVOUS, Bow-street.

J. BLOWHARD, } Officer's signature,
Trafalgar-place. } Residence.

Why, we again demand, should such a form be insisted upon, while the brother service displays the more chivalrous one which follows?

GENERAL OFFICERS' PAY.

I, Peter Sabresheath, do declare upon my Honour, that I am entitled to the pay of £ .. .. per day as a General, now claimed from the 1st January to the 31st of March, 1832.

Dated this 2nd day of April, 1822.

Officer to sign his name here. } PETER SABRESHEATH,
Residing at Maida Hill.

I do attest and declare that I verily believe the above declaration to be genuine and authentic.

The Agent to sign his name here. } MOSES MAKEPENNY.

We affirm that the latter form is, to all intents and purposes, as binding as the former one, upon officers of every description and rank. It has none of the degrading properties of common oath-taking, and would give to individuals that personal responsibility which leads to virtuous carriage. In this light, we have often thought, that the easy, dignified deportment of even the commonest Turk, has partly resulted from the trust placed in him, for in most trials the word of a known moslem is sufficient testimony to support an accusation or defend a charge: and where an oath is administered, it stigmatizes the taker as a man of bad faith. The Koran forbids the making of God a target for swearers, and the whole body of 'Ulemâ would regard the hot plough-shares of the Saxons, the fetiches of the Negroes, and the custom-house oaths of the English, as alike abominable.

Of the demoralizing consequences of oft-administered oaths, every one will be aware, on casting his eyes towards France, and her century of constitutions. A worthy old *Commis* in one of the public offices at Paris, observed at a private party, soon after the *restoration*, how often they had been called upon in the last twenty-five years to take the oath of allegiance to the existing government. "For my part," added he, with a significant smile and a shrug of the shoulders, "I never give myself any trouble about it, but take every oath proposed without the least hesitation."

Paley, mistaking the exception for the rule, has dogmatically pronounced that the "Rule of Honour" was made by fashionable people,

to facilitate their intercourse with one another, "and for no other purpose." He then adds, that it countenances cruelty, impiety, revenge, and the licentious indulgence of the natural passions; and that it places no value on the virtues opposed to those vices. It is hence pretty evident, that the Reverend Archdeacon was, upon the "Rule of Honour," in the condition of Mahony's salmon upon a gravel walk. We have no doubt but he would have thought it grossly illiberal if—because disgraceful transfers of preferment have been made, and that the newspapers fatten on the adulteries and evil deeds of worthless clergymen—we were to stigmatise the meritorious servants of the church as a body, and say that the solemn asseverations of their call permitted the free exercise of simony, and infamous propensities. Addison, who moved in as good a sphere* as did the Archdeacon, despises the class who have the spurious notions of the "sacred tie" which Paley entertained, and remarks that it is a sense of so fine and delicate a nature that it is only to be met with in minds that are naturally noble, or in such as have been cultivated by good examples or a refined education. True honour will ever scorn evil actions, and its votaries are those, in the words of the Royal Psalmist,

> "Who know what 's right, not only so,
> But always practise what they know."

An old aphorism observes, and the observation is perfectly just, that the nearest way to honour is, for a man so to live as to be found, in truth, that which he would be thought to be. And in direct allusion to this fine impulse, the ancients represented Apollo as a man, with a rose in his right hand, a lily in his left, above him a lotus, and under him wormwood, with this device,—"CONSIDER."

But although Paley was incapable of defining honour properly, his authority, on most other of the points which he treated, must be holden in the greatest respect; and we gladly conclude our observations with his view of the evils of oath-taking. "A pound of tea cannot regularly travel from the ship to the consumer without costing half-a-dozen oaths at the least; and the same security for the due discharge of their office, namely, that of an oath, is required from a churchwarden and an archbishop, from a petty constable to the chief justice of England. Let the law continue its own sanctions, if they be thought requisite, but let it spare the solemnity of an oath. And where, from the want of something better to depend upon, it is necessary to accept men's own words or own account, let it annex to prevarication penalties proportioned to the public mischief of the offence."

---

* This word has been strangely familiarized: should it not rather be *orbit*?

SURVEY OF THE ST. LAWRENCE.

BY COMMANDER BAYFIELD, R.N.

It is so gratifying to meet with officers who avail themselves zealously of the opportunities afforded them to cultivate science, that it is with peculiar satisfaction we give an abstract of a letter lately received from Capt. Bayfield. That valuable and persevering commander, who was for several years engaged in the arduous enterprise of surveying the great Canadian lakes, and returned home for a short time, only to prepare his work for publication,—went out again to follow the St. Lawrence down to the ocean, and is now fast approaching the completion of his Herculean task. He had long struggled alone against the numerous obstacles which that severe climate opposed to him; but is now cheered by a great improvement in all the means afforded him, especially by the appointment of Mr. Kelly, as surgeon to his party,—a gentleman possessing many scientific acquirements, and energetic in furthering Capt. Bayfield's pursuits.

Observing great and sudden changes in the relative temperature of the air and surface water in the estuary of the St. Lawrence, it occurred to Capt. Bayfield, that this phenomenon might be connected with the fog-banks and *mirage* so frequent in that vicinity. He has accordingly accompanied his Meteorological Journal with the temperature of the sea, whenever circumstances would allow of its being taken, both at the surface and at various depths. The result of which is, that there is generally a thin stratum of warm water on the surface, especially during calm weather; though after a gale, even in summer, it has been as low as 38° Far. owing probably to the agitation of the element having stirred up the colder water from beneath. That the temperature of the sea decreases in proportion to the depth of the soundings, so as to form for example the following scale in summer, when the air was 60°, and the dew points by Daniel's hygrometer 50°.

Surface	57°	10 fathoms	38°
½ fathom	44	50 ditto	34 to 36
1 ditto	40	100 ditto	33 to 35
5 ditto	39		

The important reference to which a long series of similar experiments leads, is, that where there is a great difference of temperature between the *surface water* and the *dew-point*, whichever way the difference lies, a fog-bank or only a mirage ensues; but with this distinction, that when the dew-point far exceeds the water, a deposition of the aqueous vapour in the air takes place, occasioning a mirage that distorts without inverting objects, and elevates the apparent horizon 3′ or 4′, and *vice versa*. When the surface water far exceeds the dew-point in temperature, the mirage inverts objects without distorting them, and depresses the apparent horizon, owing to the exhalation from the water not being able to rise in the cold atmosphere, and therefore clogging its lower stratum. These fog-banks, though seldom reaching more than forty or fifty feet above the level of the sea, are of course a great obstacle to astronomical observations; and besides their well-known inconvenience in common navigation, are found an especial annoyance in surveying. For instance, Capt. Bayfield says—

"We were, last year, sometimes six days following without seeing more than a hundred yards from the vessel, being all that time enveloped in thick fog, which condensed on the rigging, and fell constantly dripping on deck, so that every thing was wet, although the sun was shining during the greater part of the time."

He then adds a characteristic picture, which we will also give in his own words.

"I find that I can do nothing in winter here with moon culminating stars, for several reasons—want of an observatory, of proper instruments, and above all, of time to spare from other and more pressing duties. Besides, I am in the midst of a city, with almost always a dense haze hanging over us, caused by the intense cold, which condenses the vapours arising from fires, cooking, the breath of its numerous inhabitants, &c. This effect is striking on a very cold and sunshiny day, for at a distance, the city seems enveloped in a cloud, through which the steeples of the churches, covered with bright tin, are seen shining like reddish gold. I do what I can, however, in the astronomical way, by taking most of the occultations and eclipses of Jupiter's satellites; and am making a series of lunar observations on either side of her, with great care, though rather to corroborate other observations than to ascertain the longitude of Quebec, for that is already settled to less than a minute of a degree."

Our valuable correspondent has looked around him also with the eye of a geologist, and gives the following sketch of his late cruising ground.

"Our labours now lie on the northern side of the estuary, from Point des Monts to Mingan. This long extent of coast is of bold and precipitous granitic rocks, sienitic granite predominates. At the Maniconagon Point, I observed a beautiful instance of the reproductive effect of rivers, for on each side of that peninsula, great rivers enter the St. Lawrence: on the west the Oulard and Bersimis; on the east the Maniconagon; and each of these, although insignificant when contrasted with the mighty St. Lawrence, would be considered large streams in England. By their alluvial deposits they have formed a delta, the largest side of which is about fourteen nautic miles, and very dangerous shoals beyond it, whose materials are arranged in alternate fine and coarse strata, similar to the peninsula; for when the waters are not above their mean height, the deposit goes on regularly, the finer particles being carried out the farthest;—but in the spring, at the periodical melting of the snows, these rivers are full, and their currents extremely rapid, then the heavier particles are carried farther out than at other times, and are deposited over the finer particles. The course of these rivers, as far as we examined them, was through a granitic country, but the valleys and basin-shaped hollows are filled with stratified clay, sand, and gravel, which sometimes contain marine shells, and it is from them that the alluvial matter brought down is principally derived.

"When we entered Oulard bay, on the west side of the Maniconagon peninsula, at the time of flood, the water was clear; but the next day we entered it during the ebb, and found the whole of that extensive bay of the colour of sand, and had we not previously ascertained its immense depth of ninety-three fathoms, we should have thought it a sand-bank. The delusion was caused by the fresh water of the rivers, highly charged with alluvial matter, floating on the surface, in a stratum so thin, that we could see the sea water through it in some places; and the Gulnare, as she sailed along, displaced it, and left a blue streak in the line of her wake as far as the eye could reach. Some of the water was taken up, and being allowed to subside, the colouring matter was found to be an impalpable clay.

"The Mingan islands are of shell-limestone, probably of the same formation as that of Anticosti. The cliffs are broken into pillars, flower-pots,

porticoes, &c. partly arranged in lines on terraces, much above the present high-water level. They are frequently irregularly jointed, and have the appearance at a short distance of the ruins of some ancient city, or rather temple. From their situation it is evident, either that the level of the sea has changed, or that the islands have been elevated. I incline to the latter opinion, for volcanic agency is not yet entirely exhausted in the valley of the St. Lawrence. There have been shocks of earthquake felt, this year, at St. Paul's and Murray bay, ninety miles below this city, sufficiently strong to split walls and throw down chimneys."

The varied pursuits of Capt. Bayfield, so energetically followed up, lead us to hope, that at some future day he may favour the public with a full and complete memoir of his residence in Canada, since it must be so full of incident and novelty of many kinds, equally interesting and instructive. We find indeed, that he occasionally contributes articles to the annals of the "Literary and Historical Society of Quebec," and trust that this may be the prodromus to a larger work.

MEMOIR OF THE SERVICES OF THE LATE GEN. ALEXANDER CAMPBELL.

This officer had nearly completed sixty-three years in His Majesty's service, having entered the army as an Ensign in the 42nd Foot, in April 1769. In the following year, he became Lieutenant in the 2nd Battalion of this distinguished regiment, and joined it in Minorca. In 1772 he was promoted to a company in the 50th regiment, which corps he never joined, being, in September of the same year, removed to the 62nd Foot.

Having joined the 62nd in Ireland, Capt. Campbell embarked with it for Canada, where he served as Captain of Light Infantry under Gen. Carleton in the campaign of 1776, and also in that of the following year under Gen. Burgoyne.

After the surrender of the British army at Saratoga, in the end of the year 1777, the subject of this memoir having procured a majority in the 74th Foot, obtained an exchange from the Americans, and repairing to New York, was appointed to serve as Major to the 1st Battalion of Light Infantry, in which situation he continued two campaigns; and at the close of the war commanded at Penobscot. He subsequently joined the 62nd, of which corps he was appointed Lieutenant-Colonel in December 1782.

Lieut.-Colonel Campbell remained with the 62nd regiment in Scotland and in Ireland until 1789, when he exchanged into the 3rd Foot Guards; and with that distinguished corps, he was present as Captain of Light Infantry in the campaign of 1793, and during part of that of 1794, under His Royal Highness the Duke of York, but having got the rank of Colonel on the 12th of October 1793, and raised the 116th regiment in 1794, he was appointed to serve as Brigadier-General, and subsequently as Major-General on the staff of the force on the Continent, designated as Lord Moira's army.

In 1796 Major-Gen. Campbell served in the West Indies under the gallant Sir Ralph Abercromby, and in November of that year, he was appointed to the Colonelcy of the 7th West India regiment.

In 1797 he was appointed to the Staff at Newcastle: in 1798 removed to the Staff of Ireland, and subsequently to that of Scotland. In 1802 he received the Brevet of Lieutenant-General, and for the five following years was on the Staff in Ireland and North Britain.

In 1804 he was appointed Colonel of the 13th Foot; in 1812 promoted to General; and in the following year, he was removed to the 33rd Foot, of which corps he continued Colonel till his death in February last.

MEMOIR OF THE SERVICES OF THE LATE MAJOR-GENERAL THOMAS HAYES.

This officer belonged to the Madras Establishment of the East India Company's service. He embarked for India in 1780, and was taken prisoner on his passage by the combined fleets of France and Spain. He was sent to Cadiz, from thence to Lisbon, where an exchange was effected, and he returned to England in December of the same year. In March following he again embarked for India, in company with the fleet commanded by Commodore Johnson, destined to attack the Cape of Good Hope, with troops on board under the command of Major-Gen. Medows. The fleet put into St. Jago for fresh water, and was on the next day attacked by the French fleet, commanded by M. Suffrein, having on board large reinforcements of troops for the relief of the Cape. The action continued for more than an hour, when the English obliged the French, who had anchored, to cut their cables and run for the Cape. In consequence of this business, the expedition against the Cape was abandoned, and the Indiamen directed to proceed to India. In August 1781, they arrived at Madras.

In February 1782, the subject of this sketch was appointed Lieutenant fireworker in the artillery; he joined the grand army under Sir Eyre Coote; was present at the battle of Cudalore, and during the siege of that place received two wounds. He remained with the grand army till the conclusion of the war (in May 1784) with Hyder Ally and Tippoo Sultaun. In September of the latter year he was appointed Adjutant to a newly-raised corps of native artillery, which situation he held till the corps was reduced by order of the Court of Directors.

In 1787 he was selected by Brigadier-Gen. Harris to command a detachment of artillery, sent against the Poligars, and in which employment he continued until they were brought to a proper state of subjection. In 1790 he joined the grand army under Gen. Medows, and was on command with it during the campaign throughout the Coimbatore country, until the arrival of Lord Cornwallis. In May of that year he was appointed Adjutant of the 2nd battalion of artillery, which staff situation he held until promoted to a company, in May 1793. Having joined the grand army under Lord Cornwallis, this officer was present at the siege and capture of Bangalore, and at the siege of Seringapatam. He remained with the grand army until the conclusion of the treaty of peace in 1792.

Capt. Hayes, in August 1793, served under the command of Major-Gen. Braithwaite at the siege and taking of Pondicherry. In 1797 he was appointed to command the coast artillery stationed at the island of Ceylon, and upon being relieved from that service, in May 1800, a letter of thanks was transmitted by Colonel Champagne, commanding, to the Government of Fort St. George, expressing his "high approbation of Capt. Hayes' professional abilities, and of the zeal and unremitting attention he had paid in forwarding the public service, for upwards of three years under his command; during a principal part of which he, Capt. Hayes, had acted as superintending engineer at Trincomale, much to his satisfaction."

Capt. Hayes was next appointed to the command of a detachment of artillery about to be sent on a secret service, but after part of the troops had been embarked the expedition was countermanded, and finally relinquished. In 1802 he obtained the brevet of Major, and in this year was obliged to embark for Europe on sick certificate. In September 1804 he again arrived at Madras, and was appointed to command the artillery with the field force under the Duke of Wellington, then Sir Arthur Wellesley, against the Mahrattas. He continued in this situation until the conclusion of the war, in April 1806, when he was appointed to command the 1st battalion of artillery stationed at Seringapatam. He remained in the latter capacity until compelled, in 1808, to proceed to Europe on urgent private affairs. He returned to Madras in July 1812, and was nominated to command the 2nd battalion of artillery, which situation he held till May 1819, when he was appointed Colonel of a regiment, and in January 1820 Commandant of Artillery; the 4th of June 1814, he had obtained the Brevet of Colonel. He commanded the cantonments of St. Thomas's Mount, in the room of Major-Gen. Bell, who embarked for Europe in January in 1820. Being promoted to Major-General in July 1821, this officer was removed in March of the following year from his situation as Commandant of artillery and the command of the cantonments, and he embarked for England in January 1823, having completed a service of forty-three years. He died on the 31st of August last.

MEMOIR OF THE SERVICES OF THE LATE LIEUT.-GEN. JOHN HUGHES.

Lieut.-Gen. John Hughes was appointed an Ensign in the 33rd Foot in 1779, and promoted to a Lieutenancy in 1781. He served with this corps seven years in the East Indies, but returning in 1787, in ill health, he entered the Life Guards, where he served ten years, and then exchanged, in 1798, into the second battalion of the 60th Foot, and served with it as Major and Lieutenant-Colonel nearly three years in America, when a complaint contracted in warm climates obliged him to return home. He became Colonel in the army in 1808; Major-General in 1811; and Lieutenant-General in 1821.

ON THE OUTPOST DUTIES OF CAVALRY.

BY LIEUT.-COLONEL LOVELL BADCOCK.

THE writer, who passed a considerable time in the light cavalry on service, has been frequently applied to on questions of out-post duty, although now on half-pay; he is therefore induced to publish a little code of instructions relating to that service, which were issued under the sanction of Colonel Lord G. W. Russell, C.B. whilst Major of the 8th Royal Irish Hussars under his Lordship's command. One chief reason for writing them was, that although many able works had been written by intelligent officers of rank on the same subject, yet young officers complained they did not understand them, as they seemed designed more for officers who had already seen service, than for those who had never seen an out-post.

ADVANCED PICQUETS.

An officer or non-commissioned officer going out with a picquet, should make a list of names, and corps to which they belong, if composed of more than one, and on his way should remark any place where a stand could be made in case of retreat.

An officer on arriving at his post should first place his vedette or vedettes on the most eligible situation for observing all the road or roads leading towards his picquet, and if possible, in view of his own picquet; should the latter not be the case, he must place a dismounted vedette near the picquet, who can observe both. Sometimes it may be as well to place the advanced vedette where he can be concealed from the enemy. The officer or non-commissioned officer should then immediately send patroles to his front and to his flanks, to communicate with the picquet on his right and left, and should not dismount his picquet till he has ascertained those points. If he is a flank picquet, or as is called *en l'air*, it will be necessary for him to be much on the alert on that side, and place vedettes and patrole continually. As soon as he has established his post, he must send in a written report; and any circumstance that may occur, such as relating to the enemy, deserters, &c. to be reported immediately.

It is usual to have a man from the supporting picquet or inlying picquet for that purpose. The advanced vedette will keep a constant sharp look-out; anything he observes in regard to movement of troops he will advise the picquet of; if only a small party, deserter, or flag of truce, he will hoist his chaco on the end of his carbine, and the officer or non-commissioned officer will immediately gallop up to see what is the matter. If a more considerable party, such as might attack his post, he will circle his horse at a walk. If a large body, looking like an advance, he will circle at a quicker pace; the circling to be repeated by all the vedettes within sight, although not belonging to the same picquet. Picquets must recollect that the whole safety of an army frequently depends on the alertness of the picquets: they are, in short, the watch-dogs of the army. Therefore anything that may come within their view or hearing must be reported; such as distant view of troops marching in camp, sounds of drums and artillery, firing of shots, &c. On taking up a night-post, the vedettes must be double, never off the road; and it is ascertained a person can see better up a hill, than down, at night. Vedettes must be perfectly still, and listen; sounds may be heard at a great distance at night. The body of the picquet must also place themselves on the road, and if a road where cavalry can easily rush in upon them, they must place obstacles across the road, such as a waggon or a cart, a gate, plank, or anything that may delay or break the attack of the enemy. Patroles must go every hour or half-hour to the front and flank, communicating with the picquet on the flank; should the path be intricate or difficult, at night, or

through a wood, or over a common, tufts made of straw or stubble, or anything white, will serve as lamps to mark the track. Picquets must invariably be mounted an hour before day-break, and at sun-setting till they have established their night-post. Unless a picquet has orders to retire express, it is expected that it will defend its post as long as possible, to give time to the troops and support in the rear to turn out and form as gradually as circumstances will permit.

The officer or non-commissioned officer must be careful to give every possible information relative to his post, on being relieved.

The inlying picquet is generally formed of the next squadron for duty, and although resting, will be in readiness to turn out at the shortest notice, either as support to the advances, &c.

Picquets during a fog, if in an enclosed country, to act as on a night-post, and double their vedettes: if on a plain, communications must be kept up with the flank picquet by placing vedettes at such an interval that they can hear any one endeavouring to pass between their posts, and by frequently patrolling to each other, commencing from a named flank.

If the enemy is so near the vedette, that he is obliged to gallop in for security, they should fire their carbine or pistol to alarm the picquet; and when the post is attacked, he should communicate the same to his flank picquet, and he should never abandon his post without calling in his vedettes; he must throw out skirmishers, and if obliged to retire, it must be done as slow as possible, to give time to the corps in the rear to turn out and take advantage of those places he had remarked on his way to his post, where to make a stand, such as at a ford, bridge, ravine, defile, &c.

It is a most important part of the duty of officers and non-commissioned officers commanding picquets to inspect every relief of vedettes, both when they go out and come off their posts, and to use every possible means to keep their men in the most perfect state of preparation.

SUPPORT OF PICQUETS.

The support to the advanced picquets, generally composed of the remaining part of the squadron, should post itself below the junction line of roads, where they may branch off to the advanced picquets: from this body should be sent the distant patroles to the front, flank, &c. It is advisable, if possible, to have the advanced picquets in sight of their post; or if not, a sentry should be placed so as to observe them. Constant patroles of communication should be kept up between the advanced post and the brigade in the rear.

The officer commanding should only allow a third to be unbridled at once, and at night, of course, all bridled up.

The night-post will most probably be in the rear of his day-post, and to which he should retire at dusk, and he should select such a part of the road as is most difficult to be approached by an enemy, and easiest defended, such as at the rear of a bridge, defile, &c.; he must send in all the reports from patroles, &c. to head-quarters, and should himself place his advanced picquet, and should be mounted an hour before day-break, and at sun-set, the same as the advanced picquets. General rule,—never to put a picquet in a house, barn, &c.

Inlying picquets, generally composed of the first squadron for duty, on any alarm should immediately turn out and form in the front of the bivouac, &c. to protect the camp against any sudden attack.

An officer sent out with an alert party of observation, perhaps detached from ten, twenty, to thirty miles in front or to the flank, on arriving at the post he intends to occupy, should thoroughly reconnoitre, and post himself at the end of the town or village, keeping his party together, and where he can command the most extensive view. If there is a tower, castle, or high mount, he should erect a beacon thereon to fire whenever he may be compelled to abandon his post, that the army may see it, and be made acquainted with it. He should never occupy the same post at night as by day, and

must invariably lie out with his party at night; as of all parties he is most likely to be an object the enemy may wish to surprise. He probably will have to patrole a considerable extent of country, and to forage and provide himself; he therefore should make out a plan of all roads leading from his post towards the frontier or line of occupation of the enemy.

This party should be composed of smart, intelligent men. It will be found of great advantage to be on good terms with the inhabitants, and to treat them with kindness.

All officers should be provided with a telescope, pocket compass, &c. and it would be advisable for non-commissioned officers also to have at least two or three telescopes per troop.

ADVANCED GUARDS.

Advanced guards are for a double precaution against surprise, and to cover the front of the column; to ascertain any obstacles, on the route, and give due notice of their approach towards an enemy or enemy's post, and to prevent an enemy from suddenly falling upon the main body on a march:—in short, to give timely notice of any danger approaching them, or that they may be approaching. The strength of an advanced guard must depend upon circumstances. But to explain: a division of infantry and cavalry with guns is sometimes called an advanced guard; but the advanced guard to which I now allude, is the advance only of the leading column, and which is the peculiar duty of hussars and light cavalry. It is generally thus composed:—first, two vedettes with carbines advanced; these followed by a corporal and three privates: this simple advance is sufficient for a squadron or two. Should the road be winding and much concealed, another two men should be placed between the corporal's support and main body, to keep up the communication: these parties should march so as to keep the party preceding them in view as much as possible. Should the main column consist of several squadrons or a brigade, then two vedettes, followed as before by a corporal and three with carbines also advanced; these, supported by the remainder of the division of the leading half-squadron or squadron from whom detached,—eight, ten, or twelve men, under a non-commissioned officer or subaltern, as a support, and two men between them and the main body for communication. It is advisable, in an enemy's country, or near an enemy, to have an intelligent officer always with the advance, with a telescope, who can reconnoitre and give intelligence to the commanding officer of the column.* In England, and at any time when it may be thought unnecessary to move with the same advanced guard, still no body of troops should ever move without an advance of two intelligent men, who will give notice of any impediment and extraordinary circumstances that may occur on the route, such as the advance of other troops, stoppages of the roads, &c. and make themselves acquainted with the route by which the troops are to proceed to their destination.

In advanced guards passing through towns occupied by a mob or an enemy in possession of the houses, it is the best mode for the ranks to file outwards along the sides of the street, each looking to its opposite side; and by that means they can bring down any one throwing brickbats, stones, or other missiles from above. This mode was found very successful in Spain and elsewhere, when troops were engaged against the peasantry of the country.

PATROLES.

The object of patroles is for the purpose of gaining information, and for security of out-posts: their duty is to examine all roads lying between their line of posts and those of the enemy; to ascertain and note down the names of all villages, large houses, and farms, where an enemy might lie concealed;

* The serjeants of the 14th light dragoons, whilst on service, were all provided with telescopes.

open woods, &c.; rivers, if passed by a bridge or ferry. and whether or not fordable; the commanding height—on which side to take notice of all hills, defiles, &c.; to report the distance they patrole, and time at the walk of a horse; whether the roads are passable or not for artillery; if they can arrive at them where the enemy's out-posts are placed, whether of cavalry or infantry, or both; to give any information respecting them they can, as to their forces, &c. To state also the general face of the country, whether open or enclosed, and any camp or fires of bivouac in sight, or columns in motion. When patroles fall in with patroles of the enemy, they are not to engage without an absolute necessity, but are to take every precaution against surprise. The different patroles will make a report as to the above on their return, &c. A sketch of the country from officers is desirable.

FLAG OF TRUCE.

If sent with a flag of truce, the officer must make every remark he can, as to the situation of the enemy's post and security of the same; the officer is preceded by a trumpeter, who must sound as he approaches the enemy's post. Should the enemy's vedette gallop off, it will be well to take advantage of it to get a peep into their posts, but it must be cautiously done, or the flag of truce will not be received.

The receiving the flag of truce.—The vedette, when it approaches, should stop it below his post, and detain it there till the officer receives it. To prevent the flag of truce making observation, should it be necessary that the officer should be sent to the head-quarters, his eyes must be blindfolded till he has passed the out-posts; a communication, however, will be received from the head-quarters, saying whether it is to be passed in or not. The flag must be received with civility, but no conversation relative to the armies permitted.

No person must be permitted to pass an out-post without special authority.

DESERTER.

Caution should be taken in receiving a deserter, particularly in the night; people answering as deserters when challenged, should not be allowed to approach too near, and they must instantly be ordered to throw down their arms, and the non-commissioned officer of the picquet called to the spot.

In the event of a man deserting from off his post, or belonging to a picquet, it must be immediately reported, that means may be taken accordingly to counteract any report he may make to the enemy.

ON BOARD OF SHIP.

The tallest horses should be in the centre between decks; the men should be careful in feeding and watering them; when the weather will allow, their legs should be hand-rubbed, and indeed the men should be as much with them as possible. A large portion of bran should be given to the horses. On landing they should be blooded, it is the only certain method of preventing fever in the feet: swimming horses on shore is also a good thing, if the landing-place is good and extensive. Vinegar and water is occasionally recommended to sponge out the horses' nostrils with, whilst on board. There should be one spare stall on each side of the transport, and a few pair of slings always at hand in case of illness or accident; and great attention should be paid to the ventilation of the hold by means of wind-sails.

HUSSAR.

A hussar should not only learn the perfect use of his arms, but take care that they are always ready for service; the fire-arms should be well flinted, and the sword-edge sharp, and he should be cautioned against injuring the latter (as too frequently is the case), by using it to cut fire-wood, or other improper substances.

The hussar should be taught not only to clean his horse and appointments, but the general care of his charger; he should show affection and kind treatment to the animal, and make himself acquainted with his habits. To put on a shoe, if required, so many men per troop should be taught; a few small hammers and pincers are recommended per troop.

On service he will meet with great variety of forage; a horse will frequently eat what he otherwise would not touch, from the hand of a person he is accustomed to, and in a troop a few horses liking a particular kind of food will teach the others to eat it. The corn generally met with in Europe consists of several kinds that require care in the feeding. Maize or Indian corn, rye, wheat, barley, oats, chesnuts, acorns, and furze, may all become rations. Maize it is necessary to teach the horses to eat first, if possible, by putting a horse close at hand, that is accustomed to the food, as before stated. Rye when issued requires great management; a horse feeding on rye should not be watered less than a full hour before or after eating it, as otherwise it might prove fatal; it is advisable (if possible) always to mix a certain portion of straw with it, and give it only in small quantities at a time.

Wheat is also liable to produce the same effects as rye, though not so readily: oats and barley are the best forage. Of furze it is necessary that it should be bruised or chopped, to enable the horse to eat it without injuring his mouth.

Barley, when given with the straw, is apt to give horses sore mouths; and it is necessary that the men should clean out the horses' mouths after feeding, to prevent the beard of the barley from accumulating under the tongue and sides of the jaws, and causing sores. It is also necessary in many countries to inspect the horses' mouths after watering, as leeches are often found fixed in their mouths, some rivers abounding in those insects. As horses cannot be groomed at regular stated times, as in England, every opportunity should be taken in camp or bivouac to strip, unsaddle, and clean them, and they should be saddled again as soon as done. It is usual to unsaddle one squadron only at a time.

In Ireland, and all other countries where flax is grown, all hussars should be very strictly cautioned against watering their horses in ponds or streams where flax has been steeped, as it would prove very injurious to the horses. For a considerable time they would ill thrive, appear delicate, and their coats very rough and unhealthy.

REMARK ON SKIRMISHING.

In skirmishing there can be no regular mode laid down; as to line, skirmishers must act according to ground, and the opposite movement of the enemy; but in all advances it should be done in one rank only. In retiring, two ranks may be successfully employed where retiring across ravines or rivers; one rank first crossing will cover the passage of the other.

REMARK ON THE CHARGE.

In regard to the charge, that of line and large bodies cannot be too steady and compact; but for affairs of post the wild hurrah charge of light troops will do. Swords should never be drawn till the moment of attack.

FIXING OF FLINTS.

Great attention should be paid to the fixing of flints to the carbines and pistols. No uniform mode should be adopted; the flat side of the flint must be placed either upwards or downwards, according to the size and shape of the flint, and the proportion which the height of the cock bears to the hammer; this may be ascertained by letting the cock gently down, and observing where the flint strikes the hammer, which ought to be at the distance of one-third from the top of the hammer. Care must also be taken that the flint be not too long, or it will lean against the hammer, and the

priming will escape; the flint must be screwed in firmly. When carbines and pistols are loaded, it is better to let the ramrod remain in the barrel, which will prevent the ball from shaking out during a trot, which is frequently the case.

FORAGING.

Whilst foraging in the vicinity off an enemy, a covering party will be ordered for the protection of the foragers, the strength of which must depend upon the body it is intended to cover, and the nature of the ground, &c. The foraging should be carried on as expeditiously as possible. Sickles are usually issued to the troops at the commencement of taking the field. The foragers should invariably take their swords with them: forage cords and nets for chopped straw are also issued to the troops.

BAGGAGE.

The usual and best mode of carrying baggage is on a mule; therefore a good one should be purchased as early as possible, if not in this country, on landing in any other, where they are to be met with. No inferior animals should ever be allowed with light cavalry. On going on service, an officer should provide himself with a good pack-saddle, with hooks and straps, to which two small portmanteaus should be attached, one on either side; in the centre should be rolled up a skin or hide with a paillasse attached, for putting in straw or other materials at times, or one made of horse-hair (which resists damp and insects), for his bed; the whole covered with a large oil deck. A bill-hook, claw-hammer, sickle, and forage-cords should be added. Another mule per troop is requisite, for the purpose of carrying a small canteen, hung on a similar pack-saddle, for the officers' messing, cooking apparatus, prog, &c.

PROJECTS FOR MARINE RAILWAYS ACROSS THE ISTHMUS OF PANAMA, AND IN THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

Having in preceding numbers of the United Service Journal exhibited extensive projects for marine railways, connecting the various seas of the British islands, I propose, in the daily darkening prospects of our commercial horizon, to submit similar plans tending to produce an early and vast extension of our commerce to the western hemisphere.

First, I propose to form a marine railway across that spot which is destined to be the key of the new world—the Isthmus of Panama. The advantages of a pass here seem, indeed, to be boundless to a commercial nation, for it will save a navigation of ten thousand miles round Cape Horn, opening out the trade of Peru, Chili, and all the western regions of North and South America, with the Sandwich Islands, and all the isles scattered over the vast expanse of the great Southern Ocean. The isthmus is at one spot not more than seven leagues across, but from Porto Bello to Panama, the capital cities of the province, the distance is thirty-seven miles, with vast mountains intervening. What the size, stratification, or direction of these mountains may be, probably is not known, but though the whole thirty-seven miles were required to be tunneled, still the expense is warranted by the vast revenue which must result from the railway; besides that much gold would probably be found in the progress of the work, this being the heart of the gold region of South America. The canal which is in

contemplation at this time across the isthmus of Panama, by an American joint-stock company, is evidently a project the difficulties and expense of which would be tenfold greater than the accomplishment of this great work by means of a railway for shipping. I suggest then, that a joint stock company of English proprietors of Columbian bonds, would possess eminent advantages for this work, for the land, labour, and other materials may be obtained at par in Columbia, with the bonds of the government of the country. These bonds are in England depreciated almost to nothing, there being no prospect of dividend, or the redemption of the loan by a state impoverished by civil war; and it is therefore probable that this project would save an immense amount of British capital from entire annihilation, and even convert the bonds into a splendid source of revenue from the railway. The condition exacted for the land and territorial rights by the Columbian Government, from a former American joint stock company, by whom a canal was projected across the isthmus in 1826, was the reservation to the state of Columbia of the tolls arising from the work for the first fourteen years; but an English company could undoubtedly obtain more suitable terms by the immediate purchase of the soil by cancelling a certain portion of the loan, the authorities of Columbia being known to be intently anxious to preserve the bonds from depreciation, and to preserve their national credit for a future loan from the merchants of England. To render this great work complete, and to anticipate future opposition from the people of the United States, the entire isthmus, or such part as lies between good natural boundaries—as the lake of Nicaragua on the north, and the river of Darien on the south, a narrow tract of three hundred miles in length, should be obtained by treaty from the Columbian Government, to be erected into an English colony, independent of the state of Columbia, and subject to the crown of England. Some consideration is also due to the ancient, yet undoubtedly just claim which Great Britain possesses upon the isthmus of Panama, founded upon the prior possession of the province by the Scottish company, under the Rev. Mr. Patterson, in 1699. The country at that period was not inhabited by the Spaniards, but by a people entirely hostile to them, and, previous to the sailing of the expedition, the right of the company was recognised by the Spanish ambassador at the court of William the Third, yet the unfortunate colonists were attacked, harassed, and at length almost exterminated, only thirty persons, of twelve hundred who composed the expedition, ever returning to Scotland. The capital subscribed for the purposes of the company was therefore entirely lost, consisting of the sum of 900,000*l.* of which 400,000*l.* belonged to the people of Scotland, 300,000*l.* to the English, and 200,000*l.* to the people of Holland and Hamburgh. The settlement of the company was at the mouth of the river of Darien, and the town of New Caledonia still appears upon the ancient charts. The origin, progress, and unfortunate termination of this noble project is described by Sir John Dalrymple, in the twentieth volume of his Memoirs of Great Britain and Ireland, the ruin of the colonists being there attributed to the injustice and prejudices of William the Third.

There are also great advantages to navigation connected with this project, for the equinoctial current and the region of the north-east trade-wind must be crossed from Europe to Porto Bello; these are perpetually favourable to outward-bound vessels, and the usual lightness of the winds and serenity of the weather in this part of the Atlantic are remarkably favourable to steam navigation. Upon the return voyage to Europe the gulph stream flows along the eastern coast of America, to the Azores, and almost to the coast of Spain. Moreover, the westerly wind prevails more than nine months in the year in the latitudes north of the Tropic of Cancer, annually increasing in prevalence; and with the progressive clearing of the forests of America, this will probably settle into a trade-wind. Thus nature leads us in an everlasting circle to the east and to the west, and as no obstacle is now

unconquerable to the science and enterprise of modern times, and as the English nation alone possesses the advantages required for the accomplishment of a pass across the isthmus of Panama; it is devoutly to be wished that no farther delay may arise in the completion of a work, the results of which, both to the old and the new world, cannot be measured by the mind of man.

The British provinces in North America may also be raised into great and immediate prosperity by a judicious formation of railways.

Here I propose, first, to form a railway for waggons from Quebec to the harbour of St. Andrew's, upon the bay of Fundy, a distance of one hundred and ninety-five miles, a work which will convey the whole trade of the St. Lawrence in a single day to the Atlantic waters,—cutting off a navigation of one thousand two hundred miles down the river St. Lawrence and round the shores of Nova Scotia. Thus the timber, provisions, ashes, and other exports of the provinces may be brought to the Atlantic, not only with more speed, regularity, and security than by the river St. Lawrence, but with the grand additional advantage of a navigation open at all seasons of the year, the harbour of St. Andrew's being capacious, deep, and never closed in the winter season, whilst the St. Lawrence is unnavigable from ice from the month of November to May. The route of this work will lie through the government lands, opening out fresh fields for the timber now rapidly disappearing from the banks of the navigable rivers; and by means of this railway great bodies of land which for ages would remain inaccessible in the absence of inland navigation, may thus be converted into a splendid source of revenue. The mode of construction may be copied from the railways now in progress of formation in the United States, which are laid down upon timber, and though that material will not possess the durability of stone, still the ground-work may be renewed at little cost; and when the clearing of the roads in the vicinity of the railway shall have rendered timber less accessible, the whole may be permanently reconstructed from stone, which then may be brought upon the railway at a small expense. The construction of this work will furnish immediate employment for a great body of emigrants, whilst, being undertaken by the government, the cost for the land and labour will be saved, and judging from the estimates for railways in the United States, where the flat rail is in use, the expense for iron-work and labour may be estimated at 500*l.* per mile, or 98,000*l.* for a distance of one hundred and ninety-five miles from Quebec to St. Andrew's, a sum which may be realised in a single month by the sale of the public lands, which then will be purchased with avidity in the vicinity of the railway.

Another great line of railways may be formed from Halifax through Nova Scotia to St. John's, in the province of New Brunswick, and thence into the United States, joining the railways which are fast spreading through that country, and which will soon reach from New York to Boston, and through the whole New England states. This railway will not only bring to the Atlantic the lumber, provisions, metal, and other exports of the provinces; but from the situation of the harbour of Halifax, a thousand miles nearer than the United States to Europe, it will doubtless command the whole stream of passengers, mails, and light articles of commerce passing into the British possessions and to the United States, and every part of the continent of America. A line of packets has long been projected from the harbour of Valentia, upon the western coast of Ireland, to Halifax, by which the passage across the Atlantic may be performed by steam shipping in about ten days in the summer months; and when passengers may be afterwards conveyed from Halifax by railways to all intermediate distances, and even to the extremity of the provinces in a single day, saving to emigrants the time, fatigue, and expense of travelling in a new country, it is obvious how rapidly these works will facilitate the population of the colonies.

Indeed, if the difficulties and expense of constructing these works in our

North American colonies were tenfold greater, an imperative necessity would exist for their adoption, if it is desired by the Government of this country to maintain an equality of commercial advantages with the neighbouring United States. For the splendid advantages of the railway system are well understood in that country, where great navigable rivers are about to be superseded by railways of vast magnitude, reaching over hundreds of miles. Upon one of these, about ninety miles are already completed from Charleston, through the states of South Carolina and Tennessee to the Mississippi at the mouth of the Ohio, a distance of six hundred miles. Another great line is rapidly approaching to completion from Baltimore to the Ohio; and a third is now proposed from Philadelphia to the Western States, in the course of which it is proposed to tunnel the Alleghany mountains. Indeed, in no country will the results of the railway system be so extensive as in the United States, for it will annihilate their only disadvantage, inland distance from the sea; and it will effect the work of centuries to connect, consolidate, and strengthen that giant territory, lying beneath all climates and spreading over a quarter of the globe. If then we would contend with these advantages in our North American provinces, it is only by similar works that we can bring to the Atlantic the agricultural exports of the colonies, and secure the stream of emigration, which otherwise with the facility of inland transportation will be rapidly diverted to the western regions of the United States.

And not only by the diminution of our surplus population at home, and the extending market for our manufactures by the rapid population of the colonies, but by the improvement of the climate upon the progressive clearing of the woods will these provinces be rendered more valuable to the crown of England. It is the impenetrability of a wooded country to the heats of summer, which causes the severity of a Canadian winter. Already a remarkable amelioration has taken place in a very few years, and in another generation the opening of the forests will so mitigate the climate that cotton, silk, and wine, will be amongst the exports of the country, the temperature being rendered similar to the corresponding latitudes in Portugal and France. We therefore see the extensive results of a judicious intersection of the provinces with railways, in facilitating the inland commerce of disconnected regions, and in their rapid population from a country desirous by emigration to be relieved from a great weight of people at home; and when these works may be completed by the proceeds of the public lands, without charge to the revenue at home, this, perhaps, may be found to be a timely suggestion to the government.

The railway system will soon change and improve the whole commercial aspect of the kingdom. By the facilities of inland transportation, the cities will lose their undue advantages of situation; manufactures will no longer be crowded and confined to the vicinity of coal-harbours and navigable rivers; and the cheap conveyance of lime, manure, and mould, will at last equalize the fertility and value of landed property in every part of the kingdom. By railways we now may cover with soil the barren tracts in the northern parts of the island; and even all our mountains may be carried to the sea. For the many millions annually paid to unemployed labourers in this populous country, would gradually by the assistance of tramways level all the mountainous encumbrances of the island, and gain as it were new kingdoms from the sea. The immensity of barren hills in the west of Scotland, would suffice, in the shallow soundings of the Irish sea, to cover the whole breadth of the channel between Scotland and Ireland, and from the Rachlin Island to the Isle of Man. Thus, by our immense command of machinery and labour, the surface of the island may in time, by the levelling of the mountains, be doubled in extent; nor is it improbable, that after-ages may see millions of acres of corn waving upon land gained from the sea, or upon the base of now cold and barren mountains.

The disuse of horses is also amongst the greatest advantages of the railway system, for not only upon the roads, but with certain agricultural improvements which are not far distant, it is probable that the use of this animal may be superseded altogether, and as one half of the produce of the earth is consumed by the horse, and as his existence is slavery, his latter stage one protracted agony, and his carcase useless to man, the statesman and man of benevolence ought to rejoice to see this abused though noble creature disappearing from the world.

And not agriculture and manufactures alone, but the shipping interest will also derive its advantages from the railway system. Vessels may then be built, repaired, or laid up in the interior of the country in the vicinity of marine railways, and in more cheap and convenient situations than the shipyards in the seaport towns; whilst the great loss of timber and iron, occasioned by the breaking up of vessels no longer seaworthy, may be saved by the employment of their hulls in transporting goods upon marine railways. The whole coasting trade of the kingdom will be annihilated, and the saving of vessels and property now annually wrecked round our iron-bound coast will repay a thousand fold the expense of constructing the railways required in every part of the kingdom.

I cannot dismiss the subject of railways, without a political suggestion of the expediency of a low rate of toll. That the country may derive the full benefit of the railway system, the government ought to limit the toll to the lowest remunerating rate, it being more prudent to retain the power afterwards to raise it, than by an unconditional act of incorporation to load the commerce of the country with an excessive rate which then can never afterwards be reduced. The example of the Liverpool and Manchester railway renders this suggestion now proper, for the toll upon that line is maintained at twelve shillings per ton for a distance of thirty-two miles, an excessive rate rendered necessary to repay the interest upon stock 90 per cent. above par, the gain of original speculators in a work in which there never existed any hazard, and to the perpetual injury of the public at large. The principles of joint stock companies, by which exclusive privileges are granted to individuals in return for some public advantages derived from their operations, render it the duty of the government to secure those advantages to the country by the act of incorporation. The directors of the Manchester and Liverpool railway were not empowered to pass through the lands of unwilling proprietors because the law desired to advance their individual interests, but that the people of Lancashire might be supplied with cheap coals and food.

The labouring classes will derive employment for many years in the construction of these works; the facility of travelling and intercourse will give more intelligence, health, and amusement to the mass of the people, and the commodities of life will be reduced in price by the diminished rate of carriage, to an extent equal to the removal of the national debt. The revenue of the Post-office will be increased by the cheap transportation of the mails, and the island will be rendered more easily defensible by the rapid concentration of troops and ships of war.

Countless other advantages will result from this wonderful system, for it is a victory gained over space, the results of which will be boundless to the future destinies of mankind.

HENRY FAIRBAIRN.

REPLY TO THE REMARKS OF "AN OLD SOLDIER" ON THE ESSAY ON TACTICS.

WHENEVER a writer undertakes to disprove or controvert the opinions delivered by another, the usual course for the critic in such a case is, to show the fallacy of the data from whence his author had started, or to point out the erroneous train of reasoning by which he arrives at the questioned conclusion. The author of an article on "Modern Troops and Tactics," published in the last number of the United Service Journal, under the signature of "An Old Soldier," follows, however, a very different plan in his remarks on the Essay on Tactics; for, without giving the unfortunate writer of the Essay any credit for the arguments by which he had endeavoured to back his views, or for the many instances brought forward to support them, the "Old Soldier" settles the point at once, by declaring that the system "is good enough to satisfy him, whose notions are founded not on theory but on practice, having participated in all the Peninsular campaigns, as likewise in the battle of Quatre Bras and Waterloo;" entirely forgetting in this statement, that an anonymous writer is but a shadow depending solely on the value of the opinions he advances, and on the power of argument by which they are sustained. Though I might certainly, under such novel circumstances, stand exonerated from noticing the strictures of my gallant opponent, I yet owe it to the importance of the subject, and to the very undeserved attention with which the Essay on Tactics has been received, not to allow them to pass unanswered; and hope to preserve in my reply the same "spirit of good feeling" in which the "Old Soldier" assures us, and I have no doubt truly, that his own remarks have been made. For the sake of clearness, his objections shall be printed in italics, but I shall abridge the text as much as possible, without injuring the sense, in order to keep this article within something like reasonable bounds.

No. 1. "*Our cavalry are censured for a want of that chivalrous spirit and daring that existed amongst them at the affairs of Villiers-en-couche and at Cateau-Cambresis,*" *&c.*

I have nowhere censured our cavalry for a want of chivalrous spirit, and it is not very fair to bring such accusation against me. I think, on the contrary, that our cavalry are far superior to any other; particularly since French and Italians, the worst horsemen in Europe, have been allowed to metamorphose the Turks from the best riders, and the best light cavalry in the world, down to the very worst. But, though I happen in this point to agree most fully with the "Old Soldier," I am very far from thinking our cavalry equal to what English cavalry might be; for those who, a century after the time of Charles XII., still cover themselves with cuirasses, who, on horseback, where a man has only one hand disposable, use a lance which is a two-handed arm, and many of whom still entertain doubts as to the facility of riding over squares of modern infantry, have evidently something to learn.

No. 2. "*It is not my intention to enter into a detail of the mode of warfare pursued by the ancients,*" *&c.*

Nevertheless, the "Old Soldier" dedicates two pages to show that the moderns are just as brave as the ancients, declaring that the pretended superiority of the Greeks and the Romans is all a "humbug." As I nowhere claimed for the ancients any superiority of natural courage or hardihood, this term cannot be intended to apply to any observation of mine, or it would not, I presume, have been made use of by one who says he writes in a spirit of good feeling; still less would it have been admitted into the pages of a Journal, which has invariably maintained, in its controversies, that urbanity of manner and gentlemanlike style of language, due, by all the members of the United Service, to themselves, and to their profession. But though I have not claimed any superiority of courage for the ancients, I have claimed for them that superior justness of military views that led them to train their infantry soldiers to war, and instruct them in the skilful use of arms; a superiority that hangs like a darkening cloud over all the martial reputations blazoned forth since the introduction of the Prussian system of tactics; for that system laid the foundation on which, by following the principles of the ancients and with the materials we possessed, the noblest edifice might have been raised, provided only the architect had been found.

No. 3. *In admitting this, however,* (that many of Dundas's manœuvres are useless,) *I am of opinion that during a long interval of peace, it is as well to make regiments so hardy that you can turn and twist them about in all shapes with ease.*'

I here agree most perfectly with the "Old Soldier," and if officers would only take the trouble of making themselves acquainted with the principles of movement, instead of being too often satisfied with a little mechanical facility, this "twisting about in all shapes" would be perfectly easy. The quantity of knowledge required by a young midshipman, before he can work his first day's reckoning, or take the simplest observation, is at least fifty times greater and more difficult of acquirement than all the cavalry and infantry movements put together.

No. 4. "*They,*" (the manœuvres enumerated by the "Old Soldier") "*sufficed at least to gain never-fading laurels for the British army, and to bring them victorious out of every battle, from* 1801 *to* 1815," *&c.*

Except at Fontenoy, where things were so badly managed as to render success impossible, and where a single charge of cavalry overthrew the whole mass of British infantry, the English have invariably beaten the French in every fair field, from Cressy to Waterloo; and as the French had, during the late war, rather a worse system than our own, the success quoted was only a repetition of the old story: victory sided with the stoutest hearts and hands at times, even against the most fearful odds and difficulties. It is not to the system, but to the high qualities of our men, that we owe the victories achieved during the war; and the question is, might not greater success have been obtained at less loss had our system of tactics and training done justice to those qualities? Achilles would, no doubt, have knocked down a good many Trojans even with the lance of Thersites, but he, nevertheless, preferred the mighty Pelean spear, that none but himself could wield, and that alone did justice to his strength and courage.

No. 5. "*The system therefore is quite perfect enough to satisfy me.*" Very possible; but a matter of no earthly consequence except to the gallant writer himself. How he happens to be satisfied with the result of the actions stated in the first part of the Essay on Tactics, in which it was shown that the system, and nothing but the system, cost the lives of so many gallant British soldiers, he does not deign to tell us; all such untoward events, really illustrative of the value of tactics, are wisely passed *sub silentio* by all the true upholders of the sublime science, a mode of arguing perfectly worthy of the cause defended.

No. 6. "*But J. M. in objecting to the tactics of our infantry, appears to think that to the defectiveness of the 'system,' as he styles it, is to be attributed our not taking more prisoners at the battle of Vittoria, and on other occasions, during the war,*" *&c. &c.*

Those who have read the Essay on Tactics, will, I hope, do me the justice to allow, that I have founded my objections to the system on a broader basis than the "Old Soldier" gives me credit for.

No. 7. "*I confess myself therefore unable to guess what system of tactics would have enabled the Duke of Wellington's army to make more prisoners on that occasion.*"

The object of tactics is to destroy the enemy, whether by taking, killing, or wounding, matters not; and at Cannæ 45,000 Carthaginians, being something inferior to the allies at Vittoria, commanded by a certain "humbug" called Hannibal, stretched 70,000 enemies, and these enemies Romans too, on the field of battle in the course of a few hours' combat. At Cressy, 20,000 English, half the number of those who fought at Vittoria, brought 40,000 adversaries, including all the chivalry of France, to the ground, during an action that could hardly have lasted three hours. As the "Old Soldier" seems not to know what sort of system produced such results, I shall here briefly tell him, and in the same capital letters in which he so much delights. IT WAS A SYSTEM THAT TENDED TO RENDER MEN SKILFUL IN THE USE OF EFFICIENT ARMS, TO DEVELOPE ALL THE PERSONAL STRENGTH AND ACTIVITY OF WHICH THE SOLDIERS WERE CAPABLE, AND TO INSPIRE THEM WITH THE BOLDNESS, CONFIDENCE, AND ENERGY, NATURALLY RESULTING FROM THE CONSCIOUS POSSESSION OF SUCH GREAT AND DECISIVE ADVANTAGES.

No. 8. Alluding to the charge made by the Highlanders at Prestonpans, all the other attacks of the kind mentioned in the essay being carefully kept out of sight, the "Old Soldier observes"—*Let us suppose a similar experiment made in our time,*" *&c. &c.* "*Admitting the British infantry to have only time to deliver two volleys of musketry (the latter of the two reserved until the attacking party arrived within ten yards of the line), and then to charge with the bayonet, can 'J. M.' really persuade himself that the assailants would have the most remote chance of success?*"

It is really delightful to see the practical soldier converted, in his hour of need, to the mere theoretical tactician. Of the mighty effects produced by volleys of musketry against the French squadrons of Waterloo, who presented a much greater mark than the Highlanders at Prestonpans, he says not one word; and merely tells us what effect should be produced according to the beau ideal of

scientific perfection. The first fire having been given at such a distance, as to enable the second to be, if possible, tranquilly prepared for, has, of course, produced no other result but to encourage the assailants by its inefficiency, and to screen them by its smoke; but then, as soon as the waving blades emerge from the sulphurous cloud, there is nothing more required but to bring the sight of the muskets to bear on the breast of the foes, to give a jerk with the forefinger of the right hand, and the whole of the onrushing swarm will no doubt be stretched lifeless on the plain in just punishment for their tactical heresy. All this sounds, no doubt, vastly well; the misfortune only is, that such a feat never yet was, and what is more, never will be, performed. Opportunities for its achievement were not wanting, and the mode of proceeding above proposed, corresponds almost word for word with the directions given to the Austrian and Russian troops in their wars against the Turks, and to the British in their contests with the Highlanders. " Follow these instructions said Tactics, and ye must be victorious." Russians, Austrians and English, bowed in submission to the words of wisdom, and were defeated; but the fall of the soldiers daunts not the men of theory—

" For e'en though vanquish'd they can argue still."

To the many instances formerly mentioned in proof of the relative value of the sword and the musket, I might have added that at the battle of Kugal, Gen. Plenienkan's division, composed of twelve battalions of infantry, and formed in square, were assailed by 1500 Janizaries, who, unbelieving dogs, not knowing the deference due to modern tactics, rushed sword in hand upon the Russians, and sad to tell, completely routed the men of science. I must also observe, that two battalions of the grenadiers of Petersburgh, were cut up to a man in the action of Choziri by a similar sword in hand attack, and not merely the second battalion of that regiment, as printed by mistake in the first part of the Essay on Tactics.

No. 9. " *' J. M.' in his paper in the U. S. Journal of May* 1831, *speaking of the British infantry, terms them ' individually very bad shots.' The opinion, however, delivered upon that point by our enemies, who have so often felt the effects of our fire, I should be disposed to pay some little deference to,*" *&c. &c.*

I did not, in the passage in question, term the British infantry " bad shots," as compared to any other troops, for I believe that owing to the natural qualities of the men, no thanks to tactics, their fire is more destructive than that of any other European infantry. I termed and term them, bad shots compared to what all men of ordinary nerve and power of vision may become by proper training and instruction, and very bad shots when compared even to the untrained militia of America. Why British soldiers should not on the other hand be as good shots as any men that ever pulled a trigger, it is for the " Old Soldier" and the other defenders of the system to show—if they can.

No. 10. " *But as he* (J. M.) *appears to despise the latter weapon* (musket) *so thoroughly, I have some curiosity to know what he would substitute for it.*"

The consciousness of defect is the first step towards improvement, and I have as yet attempted only to gain that first step by making this deficiency apparent; and though this by no means binds me to point out the remedy, I may briefly say that I would substitute the skilful use of the musket for the unskilful use now made of that arm, and aid its fire, in a manner to be hereafter specified, perhaps with the action of the sword, the most formidable weapon ever put into the destroying hands of men. I should like to see a disparity of killed and wounded between the vanquished and the victors, approaching more to the Cressy and Agincourt style, than to that of Albuera and Vittoria. The weapons of Englishmen should tell as formidably as those wielded by the Greeks and the Romans; and the defeat of a hostile army should, as in the days of the ancients, be synonymous with its destruction: had 50,000 French fallen at Vittoria instead of 5000, would not all the British blood shed between Pampeluna and Toulouse have been spared? I, who am accused of "looking down with something like sovereign contempt on the unfortunate infantry soldier of the present day," nevertheless think British soldiers capable of such actions. Those alone who uphold the system undervalue the men.

No. 11. "*J. M. admits, indeed, that the battles of Marengo; Auerstadt, Aspern, and Waterloo were gained by the firmness of the infantry in withstanding the attacks of cavalry. Such battles are proofs so incontrovertible of the superiority of infantry in squares over cavalry in many descriptions of country, as to require no small degree of logic to do away with that opinion in the minds of all unbiassed persons.*"

As a bad cause will sometimes make bad logicians even of the best of us, I hope my gallant opponent will not deem me uncourteous if I say, that men of logical minds are not satisfied with simple results, but endeavour to trace them back to the sources from whence they sprang, in order to ascertain whether they proceed from fixed and inherent causes, or must be ascribed only to local, exterior, or accidental circumstances. In the second part of the article on Tactics, I stated, that "the battles of Marengo, Auerstadt, Aspern, and Waterloo, gained by the firmness of the infantry in withstanding the attacks of cavalry, threw not only all past experience into the shade, but occasioned contemporaneous events of minor importance, but far more illustrative of professional principles, to be entirely overlooked, because men preferred judging from dazzling results to the trouble of investigating the true causes that brought them about. I then proceed, as stated, to bring forward a few of these events, trifling in result but important as to principle, and conclude the paper with a few remarks explanatory of the causes of the failure of so many cavalry charges in the late war."

Now, does the "Old Soldier" meet the many instances brought forward to show how easily cavalry can, on level ground, overthrow modern infantry, or the remarks explanatory of the failures of the many cavalry charges during the war? His device is novel and ingenious, he passes them all over without a single word of notice.

"Call you this backing your system, indeed?"

No. 12. "*And I can assure 'J. M.' that he will find but few, if any, of those who fought at Quatre Bras and Waterloo whose opinions as to the conduct of the French cavalry are not diametrically opposed to his own.*"

The value of mere opinion ceases the moment that the power of demonstration begins; and if the description I gave of the conduct of the French cavalry at Waterloo be correct, then is the accusation founded on that conduct established far beyond the control of any opinion. I accused the French cavalry of opening out from the fire of the infantry, without any sufficient loss to justify such conduct, and often, indeed, without any visible loss whatever, of flying, in wild and useless bravado, round the squares without ever venturing to close with their enemies; of sometimes turning as soon as they received the fire, that is, just when they should have gone on; or of flying themselves when they saw that their enemies were determined not to fly; and, I might have added, that on no occasion did the combined fire of the infantry and artillery produce an effect at all capable of arresting or disorganising the mass of assailants. For the accuracy of this assertion, I appeal to the officers present, nor has any one attempted to dispute it; and the "Old Soldier" himself, whose object it was to disprove the correctness of that statement, as well as the inference to which it naturally leads, does not deny even a single particle of it, but contents himself with repeating some of the common-place declamations about the indomitable valour of the French cuirassiers. My gallant opponent could not have admitted more distinctly his utter inability to face the real point at issue.

No. 13. "*It may be as well in this place to remind 'J. M.' that the splendid British brigade of infantry, which he describes as being broken and upset by the French cavalry at Albuera, were not formed in squares.*"

There could be no necessity for informing 'J. M.' of any such thing, seeing, that like every other Peninsular officer, or every officer of ordinary reading, he was perfectly aware of the circumstance, and never expressed anything to the contrary. But "it may be as well here" to ask the upholder of the system why the British soldiers of that brigade did not attempt to imitate the conduct of their ancestors at the battle of Aubroy, with whose victory the defeat of the tacticians was contrasted in the passage referred to?

In order to disprove the accuracy of my calculations as to the number of musket shots that take effect, our "Old Soldier" refers triumphantly to the action of Sabugal. As well might he refer to the single shot that sometimes brings down a stray skirmisher; for such calculations must be founded, as mine was, on the general average of a number of battles, and not by the result of a single shot or by the effect produced on a single point, or in a very partial action, because chance will at times bring troops into situations where results are produced that cannot in ordinary cases be calculated upon. Nevertheless, I will meet my antagonist on the ground he has himself chosen, and calculate, as he desires, the time it took to enable a man to put an enemy *hors-de-combat* during the affair in question, and I allow that the instant was well selected. If we estimate the British troops of the light division, and the leading regiment of Colville's brigade at 3000 men, to say nothing of the two pieces of artillery that came into action, and allow the French to have lost 1500 men in the course of this single hour's combat, we find that it took two men one hour's work, equal we shall say to two hours work of one man, to bring down a single enemy. Now the object of the calculation was to show how slowly the musketeers perform

their work of destruction, and how much time bold, active, and energetic men, skilful in the use of efficient arms, would, on an average, have to perform their work of death when opposed to such tardy foes—and is not two hours enough in all conscience?

The "Old Soldier" is not more fortunate in the calculation he next makes himself, than the one for which he had, with so much complacency, called upon me. He says, that at Garci-Hernandez, where Bock's brigade overthrew the rear-guard of the French, "*estimated at* 1700 *men,* 425 *men (one face of the square) brought down in a minute or two* 95 *of their enemies, or about a quarter of their own number.*"

The rear-guard of the French was composed of four regiments, that cannot well be estimated at less than 3000 men; seeing that the 1500 who were killed, wounded, or taken, all belonged to the 1st light infantry and 76th regiment of the line. They were formed in three squares, one of which escaped, owing to the nature of the ground, after inflicting on the cavalry a great part of the loss they sustained. So much for the plain facts: let us now state them in the manner best calculated to illustrate the principle maintained by the "Old Soldier."

Here were 3000 first-rate French infantry, for the rear-guard would naturally, on such an occasion, be composed of the best troops; they were drawn up according to the most approved tactical method for resisting the charge of horsemen. The speed of cavalry action throws the infantry soldier at once upon his own resources, he has no exterior aid or fortuitous circumstance to look to, life and liberty are at stake, and the best that can be done must be instantly done. Yet, when tried in such desperate strife, the most that these 3000 practised soldiers could do was to put ninety-five of their enemies *hors-de-combat:* and this loss is seriously brought forward by "an Old Soldier" as a proof of the efficiency of the arms, tactics, and training of modern infantry, and the consequent power of the latter to resist cavalry!!!

If the system finds not some more successful defender, we may soon say like Fitz Eustace, that "by St. George it's gone."

Speaking of the action in which Colonel Talbot of the 14th Dragoons was killed, the "Old Soldier" says, "*that the brave men of the* 14*th did not open out from the fire of the infantry* (he had, I presume, forgot to say as much of the French cuirassiers at Waterloo), *but that all those who escaped its effects reached the square.*" Unfortunately the gallant writer makes a full stop at the fatal *square,* exactly where neither himself nor the horsemen should have stopped, for we are left to guess how men arriving at speed on the bayonets could possibly avoid overthrowing all the opposing ranks of the infantry, even if killed in the very act. Fortunately, Colonel Brotherton's plain statement of the transaction helps us out of the difficulty; that officer tells us at once that the cavalry came unexpectedly upon the small body of infantry, were not prepared for the attack, and, as might easily be supposed, failed in consequence. He adds, in the same soldier-like style, that he does not consider the affair to have been any misapplication of the cavalry, implying, of course, that under more fortunate circumstances, a different result might have been expected. This is speaking intelligibly, and to the purpose.

We are next told by the gallant defender of the system, that at El Bodon, "*three sides of the infantry square were charged at the same instant* by the French dragoons."

> "Wise policy, indeed, from north to south,
> The fiery French charged in each other's mouth."

But we are not informed whether the description of these unsuccessful charges given in the essay on tactics was right or wrong, and these constant appeals to the failures of ill conducted cavalry, prove nothing in regard to principle, when opposed to the numerous instances there brought forward to show that a different line of conduct invariably led to success.

The victories gained by the French infantry in Egypt over the Mameluke cavalry are also produced in evidence against me. I confess I think they might have been spared, for the "Old Soldier" must have known that the Mamelukes, brave and skilful as they were individually, were without discipline, and possessed no power of simultaneous and combined action, and could therefore have no chance of victory against a disciplined enemy. I have shown that I am no great admirer of the present system of tactics, but no one possessed of the slightest knowledge of war and of human nature, into which war, perhaps, gives the best insight, can for a moment entertain an idea so wild and visionary as to suppose unorganised numbers capable of contending successfully against disciplined soldiers. That regular troops have, by imbecile management, been defeated by mobs is most true, and such things may happen again; troops may even defeat themselves, but with the most ordinary conduct on their part, nothing but ruin and destruction can await their unhappy and misguided foes. As the mountain of sand, composed of millions of unconnected particles, destitute of links capable of binding them together for mutual support, is scattered by the fiery blast of the Simoom, even so must all unorganised multitudes, however brave and numerous, give way before warriors habituated to the contemplation of danger, and combined and guided by the hands of discipline, that nerve the arm of the one with the strength resulting from the conscious support of thousands, and give to the thousands the speed, manageable and uniform action, of the one.

To end with the end, the "Old Soldier" only does me justice in concluding, that "I will consider no apology necessary for his having differed with me." I am, on the contrary, honoured by any notice taken, in the fair spirit of professional investigation, of my very humble efforts to throw light on a most important subject. I confess I should have felt proud of converting my gallant opponent, who, if I guess him right, by a late publication on his various campaigns, has had opportunities of observation that have fallen to the lot of few: but if I must not expect to have at once overcome his long-cherished opinions, I hope he will yet allow that his remarks have been answered, and in the same spirit of good fellowship of which he sets an example in bringing them forward.

J. M.

Edinburgh, May 1832.

THE SIEGE OF ACRE, AND MILITARY RESOURCES OF EGYPT.

AN ORIGINAL COMMUNICATION FROM THE SPOT.

The tendency of the Pasha's acts, since he has filled the important station of Viceroy of Egypt, has been to render that country an independent and hereditary kingdom; and, either by the negligence or policy of the Sultan, he has been assisted rather than thwarted in his schemes, for although he has conducted his plans with the greatest possible prudence and calculation, the Sultan cannot be ignorant of the ulterior views that the Pasha entertains, as he has already usurped most of the rights of an independent prince. He coins his own money, has raised a numerous army, and built and equipped a powerful fleet, the officers of which have sworn allegiance to him, not as a tributary to the Grand Signor but as Mehemed Ali, Pasha of Egypt. Now, although the word Pasha means viceroy or governor, its definition is lost sight of when they see him act entirely upon his own responsibility.

I dare say there is great sorrow in Europe at the idea of the present Pasha being displaced; but I have no hesitation in saying, that such a step would most likely be for the advantage of Egypt, and the amelioration of the condition of the inhabitants, as it is impossible to conceive the tyranny and oppression that are exercised over them at present. It is true that the acts of Mehemed Ali are grand, and well calculated to dazzle the eyes of strangers: when we consider that the largest ship in the world is now upon the stocks in this dock-yard, we cannot but feel surprised at the energy and mental power of the man; but one glance at his internal policy would be sufficient to deprive his most stupendous works of all their splendour. It is not my purpose now to prove the truth of this assertion, but, like the ghost in Hamlet, I could a tale unfold that would wring the heart, and make every Englishman, though as poor and comfortless as Job, bless God that he was born in a land of liberty. One of the greatest horrors is the system of pressing, but this is only temporary. It is almost impossible for an Arab without European protection to be secure. Luckily all our servants are Franks; but those who have Arab cooks stand a great chance of often going without their dinner, the poor wretches being afraid to go out to purchase the necessaries.

When I arrived, the standing army of Egypt was reckoned at 80,000 men; and since the acquisition of Candia, and the expedition against Acre, there have been levies of several thousands more. The naval force is four line-of-battle ships, one ready for sea, one rigging, one with her hull nearly finished, and one of 130 guns upon the stocks; seven double-banked frigates, of 62, 61, 58, 54, and 48 guns, afloat; and one of 84 guns on the stocks, and fifteen corvettes, brigs, and schooners of 10, 16, 18, 20, 22, and 24 guns all afloat. The instructors of the army are, generally speaking, Italians, many of whom received their military education under Buonaparte during his campaigns in Italy. There are also a few French, and I must say, the men go through their evolutions in a very creditable manner; what effect the sight of an opposing army, with its attendant anticipations, might have, remains to be seen. The present naval architect is a Frenchman, but the Pasha, being well aware of our superiority at sea and in naval archi-

tecture, intends upon the expiration of his term of agreement to get an English ship-builder. The Pasha is also anxious for English officers, and the introduction of our tactics; and Colonel Light has been despatched to England, charged with a commission to bring out about seventy officers, from an admiral, if he can get one, down to a boatswain.

The Pasha has already one Englishman in command of a frigate; he is a master in the Royal Navy, on half-pay, and has shown himself, since his arrival, well acquainted with his profession, and a brave man.

It is evident that the Pasha's expectation was to take Acre by a *coup-de-main*, and that was the general opinion here. It is true that we had a precedent before our eyes of the strength of the place, in the celebrated resistance it made to Buonaparte; but the fact of his failing in his attack cannot be adduced as a proof, being so badly supplied with artillery and provisions, and with a dispirited army; whereas Ibrahim Pasha went supplied with every requisite, or at least every thing he considered requisite, for the success of his undertaking. He had a powerful fleet, a good park of artillery, men, who although not experienced in the art of war, more than compensated for their want of knowledge by their eagerness for the fray; plenty of provisions; and although last, not least, no Sir Sidney Smith and his brave companions to assist in the defence. Ibrahim not succeeding in his operations against Acre, has placed his father in a very awkward situation. It would be madness to send the army on to Damascus, leaving such a fortress as Acre in their rear; and it appears almost certain ruin to his plans to keep them longer before its walls. It is allowing time for the troops of the Sultan to appear upon the scene of action; it is allowing the courage of his men, which is not very deeply rooted, to cool, and enabling the inhabitants of Syria to recover from their first excitement and rise *en masse* against him. Not but that I think a great portion would have joined Ibrahim had he succeeded in his first attack upon this celebrated town, Abdallah Pasha having rendered himself justly odious by his cruelty and oppression; but the check that Ibrahim has received will enable them to calculate upon the chances, and when it comes to calculation, we know of what power the king's name is; besides, as soon as the weather settles, we may expect that the Sultan's fleet will come to the assistance of this second Hector. By those who are particularly anxious for the Pasha's success, it is said, that this temporary check is in consequence of things not being in readiness, owing to the Pasha's despatching the expedition before he had calculated upon it. The cause of this is not known, but some say, that it was in consequence of the Turkish fleet being withdrawn from Kastel-oriza, on the coast of Asia Minor, where they cruise during the summer months, to pass the Christmas nearer home.

The latter end of October, Mehemed Ali despatched from Cairo the artillery and cavalry; and in the early part of November Ibrahim embarked the infantry, and sailed himself from Alexandria. As near as I can recollect, the expeditionary force consisted of 2500 cavalry; 400 artillerymen; about 22,000 infantry; two companies of rocketeers, on board two ships; eight batteries of field-pieces; six frigates, five corvettes, and nine brigs and schooners; about twenty gun-rocket-boats, and forty transports. The Pasha hoisted his flag on board the Caffre Scheik, a fine frigate, built at Archangel, lately bought by the Pasha,

and commanded by Capt. Prissick. The admiral, Mutus Bey, was on board a large frigate called the Bahira, and Osman Bey commanded another large double-banked frigate called the Jaffaria; the other ships were all under the command of Turks of no note, and who had been at sea about three or four years. When Ibrahim embarked, he gave orders for the whole fleet to put to sea; but these orders were more easily given than executed, for the harbour of Alexandria, although a very safe one to ride in, is difficult to enter and to get out of, from a reef of rocks running nearly entirely across the mouth, leaving a very small channel for large ships to beat out by, so that when the wind is from the north it is nearly impossible. Such happened to be the case when Ibrahim made the signals for sailing; but Prissick, with characteristic national boldness, determined to make the attempt, and effected his purpose in beautiful style. Some of the others attempted it but failed, and not merely failed in getting out of the channel, but manœuvred their ships so badly that they were well nigh sending all their men post to Davy's locker, and it was more than a week before the whole fleet got out. In the mean time Prissick made sail for the coast of Syria, fully expecting soon to be joined by the rest of the squadron; but after two or three days, Ibrahim Pasha getting impatient at their non-arrival, ordered the captain to enter the port of Jaffa, which he accordingly did, and dropped anchor. Immediately a deputation came off, to say that the governor would be willing to admit Ibrahim, provided he would engage to remunerate the inhabitants the money that had been levied on them by Abdallah Pasha, and relieve them from 200 men who had just entered to levy another contribution. Ibrahim declined submitting to be dictated to, but told the deputation that if the town were given up he would do all that was just, if not, he would batter it about their ears. The answer to this message was the appearance of the Governor, carrying with him the keys. Ibrahim Pasha immediately sent a force on shore to dislodge Abdallah's troops, and to keep possession of the town, and soon after put to sea, when he fell in with the admiral and some of the van ships of the fleet, and steered for the bay of Acre, anchoring upon their arrival before Caifa, a small village about six miles from Acre on the opposite side of the bay.

The principal object in taking this small and insignificant place, was to land the guns and military stores for the land forces. Whilst they were engaged in this operation, the gates of Acre opened, and a small body of cavalry made a sortie in the hopes of surprising them, and making themselves masters of a few guns; Ibrahim Pasha was, however, on the look out, and took his measures with so much promptitude, that they were forced to make a precipitate retreat with considerable loss. I cannot relate with any degree of certainty, the various skirmishes that took place between the time here spoken of and the bombardment, because the reports that we get are so much at variance; but it is certain that the bombardment took place about the latter part of November. It was long after the disembarkation of the troops at Caifa, before the admiral would allow that he was ready, and when he was obliged to confess himself prepared, he said there would not be sufficient water to go in close to the walls, and therefore ordered all the ships to keep at a distance. Prissick having previously been sounding under the walls, knew that there was plenty of water,

and despising the Turks, ran in close to the batteries; he consequently attracted most of the attention of the besieged, and when he hauled out, had 220 balls in his hull, with the loss of most of his upper masts and rigging. The whole fleet hauled off in nearly the same mutilated condition, without having displaced a stone of Acre; that is to say, of the outside walls; the inside appeared as well as they could judge, to be nearly in ruins. The only effect that this battering can be said to have produced, is to have enabled the Pasha to form a pretty good opinion of the valour of his naval commanders, and I should think the result of the trial could not be much to his satisfaction. Capt. Prissick forms a very different opinion of the character of the men.

The failure of this attack by sea, fully convinced Ibrahim Pasha that he must direct the whole of his energy to the land side, and by the 3rd of December they had everything in readiness, and began their operations; they fired for a long time without producing any good effect, the guns being placed at too great an angle of elevation; they altered this however, and soon made a breach; but when the soldiers ought to have effected an entrance, they found that all their powder was expended, and were obliged to suspend their operations, whilst they sent on board to get a supply. In the mean time, the besieged levelled their guns point blank, and destroyed the whole of Ibrahim's batteries; therefore, the Egyptians, before they could recommence, had to build fresh ones. There had been, during the action, some skirmishing amongst the cavalry of both sides, and a great number of shells and Congreve rockets thrown into the town; but, owing to the fusees being too short, almost all the shells burst in the air, and the rockets do not appear to have supported their former high character for destructiveness. The loss of life amongst the Egyptian army was trifling, as up to the present time, the returns are only 450 killed, and 350 wounded, since the expedition sailed from this port. Since this first attack, I believe there have been several others, but attended with no particular results, and I think we may affirm principally owing to the inefficiency of Ibrahim Pasha's engineer, who does not appear to have the least forethought. One time, when they have made a practical breach, they have no powder; another time, no shot; a third, no sand-bags; and when Capt. Swinburne, of the Rapid, was there, he had gone up to the mountains to cut fascines—a nice employment for a chief engineer!

The Turkish Fast, or Ramadan, being now finished, we may expect that the operations will be again renewed with vigour; more particularly as Mehemed Ali has despatched an engineer officer of the name of Romeo, to supersede the thick-headed fellow who is already with the army. I am anxious to know what effect the check the Egyptians have received, added to the bad weather they must have experienced, will have produced on their courage; they are certainly superior to Abdallah's troops, and most likely to the Sultan's, in their knowledge of military tactics. The forces inside Acre are said to be about 2000, all Syrians, with the exception of the cannoneers, who are Turks; and most excellent marksmen they have proved themselves. Mehemed Ali hopes to effect his purpose by negociation, an envoy from the Porte has been here some time, and is now gone to Constantinople—it is said with authority from the Pasha, to effect a

reconciliation; but it appears to me a vain hope. The Pasha offers money as a compensation for the insult he has offered the Porte, and for the loss of territory; and I am well aware of the powerful effect of the glittering metal, but I think the Sultan cannot conclude a peace after having gone so far as he has done, without playing second fiddle to Mehemed Ali all his life. Our Pasha has already been officially called a rebel, and the Sultan has entreated all good Musselims to join in putting down one who, by his insubordination, is likely to affect materially the interests of the Ottoman Empire. Mehamed Ali, on the other hand, has got the Sheriffe, or head of the church, at Mecca, to issue a species of bull against the Sultan, denouncing him as an enemy to Mahomedanism, a copier of Frank customs, and unworthy of the trust reposed in him, and calling upon all good faithful sons of the Prophet, to unite in the defence of their inestimable laws. The last advices from Constantinople were, that 60,000 men had already left that city for Syria, and that the greatest activity prevailed in fitting out the fleet, which consisted of four three-deckers, five two-deckers, eight frigates, twelve or thirteen corvettes and brigs, and two steamers, but that there was very little probability of its being ready to put to sea, previous to the latter end of March.

The Pasha talks very big to the Europeans who assemble at his levees, saying that he intends sending his fleet to blockade the Sultan in the Dardanelles. He has engaged the brother of the celebrated Canaris, with 100 of his countrymen, to fit out and man six or eight fire-ships.

M.

Alexandria, 14th March 1832.

CASTRAMETATION.

Castrametation, or the art of encampment of armies, is a subject of great importance, and demands the particular attention of the tactician. It is a science intimately connected with topographical engineering, combining the choice of position with the tactical arrangement of the troops and the defence of the post.

The rectangular system of encampment, practised by the Greek and Roman generals, has not been much improved (by modern castrametation) by the introduction of the rectilinear method generally adopted. The camps of European armies have a front, flanks, and rear, which evince a partial and inadequate arrangement of the troops; the front only can act, the flanks are weak, and the rear is defenceless.

In the Seven Years War the Russians joined the coalition against the King of Prussia, and invaded his dominions with a very considerable army, and committed great depredations in Pomerania; there not being a sufficient force in that province to stop the enemy, his Majesty detached Marshal Lewald with a strong corps to attack the Russians. The Prussians came unexpectedly upon the Russian camp, but the General thought the day too far advanced to commence the battle, and retired, resolving to attack the enemy early the next morning. The Russian army was encamped in lines, and had prepared its field of

battle in front. Marshal Lewald presented himself in the rear of their encampment, and had he instantly commenced the action, there can be no doubt he would have gained an easy victory. As the rear of the Russian camp was defenceless, no obstacle existed to retard the operations of his army, and the Russian General was entirely unprepared to defend himself,—he therefore beheld with inexpressible pleasure the retirement of the Prussian army, and not doubting that he should be attacked the next morning, during the night he changed his front, posted his artillery in the best manner, and made all the necessary arrangements to receive the Prussians, with a firm determination to defend his camp to the last extremity. It is well known that the Russian troops will submit to be cut down in their ranks with the utmost sang froid, and never retire unless ordered by their officers. Marshal Lewald made his attack the next morning, and though the Prussian troops acted with their usual bravery and discipline, the Russians stood firm; and though their loss was immense, they maintained their ground, and Marshal Lewald was obliged to retire, having suffered severely in the repeated attacks made upon the Russian position.

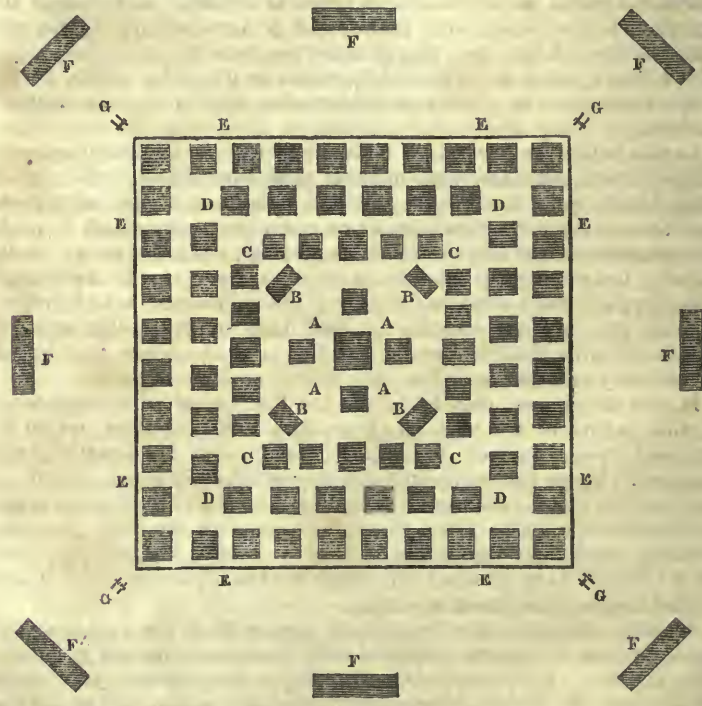
In this battle the generals of both the Prussian and Russian armies evinced but little knowledge of their profession. The Russian camp seemed to be quite too much exposed to attack, as it does not appear that there were proper outposts to cover the routes by which it could be approached; and had the Prussian general, upon his arrival in its vicinity, instantly made his attack upon its rear, the Russian army must have suffered a decisive defeat, and Pomerania have been delivered from its presence and exactions. The King of Prussia was so much dissatisfied with Marshal Lewald's conduct on this occasion, that he was immediately recalled, and Gen. Wedel sent as his successor.

It does not appear that Frederick the Great profited by experience at this period of the war, as the camp at Hochkirchen, which he occupied, was surprised by Marshal Daun, and his army entirely defeated. Upon this occasion the King of Prussia seemed to be as negligent as the Russian general in Pomerania. The Prussian camp at Hochkirchen had a *front, flanks,* and *rear,* but the King neglected to occupy with light troops the approaches to his post, and the Austrian General Lacy planned an attack on the Prussian position, and carried it into triumphant execution.

In more modern operations it will appear that the encamping in lines has been in general attended with inconvenience, and frequently with disaster. In the expedition to Egypt the British army, under Lieut.-Gen. Sir Ralph Abercromby, after the action of the 13th of March, encamped in lines, and it seems that the French troops were permitted to approach and turn the right of the British position, without meeting with any resistance, until the 28th and 42nd regiments, though attacked in their rear, faced to the right-about, and defended themselves with bravery and success, and drove back the enemy with great loss. In order to mask the real attack upon the right of the British encampment, a false attack was made upon the left, but the steadiness of the troops rendered all the efforts of the French general unavailing, and the repulsed army was driven in confusion into the city of Alexandria.

Here have been three instances noticed of the imperfection of encampments by lines, and of palpable negligence by the distinguished Generals in guarding the approaches to camps thus imperfectly arranged. If, then, camps so formed are weak, and admit of a front defence alone, surely a better and more efficient system of castrametation ought to claim the attention of officers executing the duties of the quartermaster-general's department in the different armies of Europe.

With the view of advancing a science of the greatest interest, the following system of castrametation is submitted to the consideration of scientific officers, in the hope that it possesses superior advantages to the present practice of encamping by lines. It is proposed then, that every camp, whether consisting of a regiment, a brigade, or larger body of troops, shall encamp in a square—thus:—



Note.—It is not intended by this plan to give a regular diagram of the system of castrametation now recommended, as mathematical exactness has not been attempted—but, imperfect as the scheme is, it will show the principle with sufficient clearness. A A A A commanding general of brigade and staff. B B B B messkitchens for the troops. C C C C commanding officers of battalions, and other battalion officers. D D D D non-commissioned officers and drummers. E E E E rank and file. F F F F F F grand guards of the camp. G G G G artillery. And it will be necessary to have more advanced posts and sentries, in order that surprise may not take place.

The above sketch of a camp will present four distinct fronts to an enemy; it has neither flanks nor rear, and therefore has no weak

points. A single regiment may encamp in this manner, and several corps so encamped may form a regular brigade, equally defensible, and brigades so formed may constitute a division of an army. The commanding general's station will be in the centre of his brigade or division, and the officers commanding battalions will be in the most convenient situation for receiving his orders and communication with him. The battalion officers will be on the right and left of their commandants, in the rear of their respective corps, and the non-commissioned officers behind the private men, and the whole of the distribution of officers and men appears to be well calculated for convenience and security.

Towards the end of the Seven Years War the King of Prussia formed a camp upon a rising ground at Bundlewitz, which presented a defensive front on all sides. It never was attacked, and therefore it may fairly be presumed, that it was judiciously chosen, skilfully occupied, and powerfully defended by works and artillery.

The camp selected by the Saxon army at Pima, in the year 1756, could not be forced, but the King of Prussia blockaded it so effectually as to compel the Saxons to surrender at discretion; but his Majesty lost two armies afterwards at Maxen and Laershut, in consequence of their having taken positions from which they could not retire; and the Duke of Cumberland, in the year 1757, permitted himself to be driven by the French Marshal D'Etrées into a situation from which he neither could advance nor retire, and his Royal Highness was obliged to surrender nearly fifty thousand fighting-men, upon very unfavourable terms, to the French general. The choice of positions, and the manner of securing their defence, are of great importance in military operations. The lines at Torres Vedras, in Portugal, chosen by the Duke of Wellington and fortified by British engineers, evince what may be effected by skill, judgment, and resolution. These lines could not be turned, as their flanks were unattackable, and their front was so well covered by the nature of the ground, by works and artillery, as to render all the enemy's efforts hopeless and unavailing.

ALFRED.

TRAITS AND INCIDENTS, NAVAL AND MILITARY.

ANECDOTE OF THE LATE GENERAL SIR GEORGE DON.

IT is well known that after the failure of the celebrated expedition to the Scheldt, under the Earl of Chatham, in 1809, that nobleman quitted the army in September, and returned to England. The late Gen. Sir George Don, then Lieutenant-Governor of Jersey, was selected by the Commander-in-chief (Sir David Dundas) to proceed at once to Walcheren, and replace Lord Chatham. On his arrival, the General found the army distributed over the pestiferous island, and daily falling victims by hundreds to the fatal autumnal fever. In what manner Sir George Don discharged the arduous duty of commanding a large force under such painful and inglorious circumstances, what personal attention he gave to the hospitals and other arrangements for the care and comfort of the suffering troops, it is not necessary here to notice. The surviving officers and soldiers who served in that ill-fated expedition, can never forget the extraordinary exertions and self-

devotion of the gallant chief. The welcome orders for the evacuation of Walcheren at length arrived, and preparations were immediately made to carry them into effect. First the sick, and next the convalescent were embarked; then the work of destruction proceeded: the basin, the arsenal, magazines, &c. were effectually destroyed, and the sad remnant of the fine army which had such few months previously left their native shore—the small band of those still capable of standing under arms—were prepared to quit the unhealthy swamp. It was no secret that the native authorities of the island were decidedly unfavourable to the English. Sir George Don had ascertained from unquestionable sources, that they were in constant correspondence with the French General. On the day previous to that fixed for the final embarkation, certain movements on the part of the French indicated an intention to attack the British, when they should attempt to pass the commanding forts held by their enemy. Gen. Don immediately assembled at his quarters the burgomaster and chief burghers; he informed them that on the morrow the evacuation of their island would be effected, and he would fain hope that no molestation of the French would oblige him to cut the dykes. "*Messieurs,*" said Sir George, with that soldier-like demeanour for which he was remarkable; "*Messieurs,—Votre isle existe aujourdhui; mais, si je le trouve apropos, il n'existera plus demain.*" With this significant hint, the conclave was dismissed. Several messengers were afterwards observed to pass and repass between the town and the French head-quarters. On the 23rd December 1809, the British army sailed out of the Scheldt without having lost a man during the embarkation, or any of the vessels receiving a shot from a French battery. W.

ACTION OF THE MERLIN SLOOP OFF HAVRE.

I have just opened the twelfth volume of the Naval Chronicle, and in page 231, August 1804, find the following account of what was at the time considered a very gallant little affair.

"The Merlin sloop, of sixteen guns, Capt. Brenton, was so close in with Havre, and so far from the rest of the squadron, that ninety-seven gun-vessels got out and attacked her.

"Upon this great force did our little vessel keep up such a tremendous cannonade for three hours, that they were obliged to keep at bay; and it was not until a reinforcement was coming out, that she made sail, and joined the rest of the squadron, which had witnessed her conduct. She was part of the time in only three fathoms water, and so near to the batteries, that their shot went over her."

I have to observe, His Majesty's Sloop Merlin, to the best of my remembrance, mounted fourteen thirty-two pounders, and two long nines on the main-deck, four twenty-four pound carronades on her quarter-deck, and also two on her forecastle, making altogether twenty-two guns instead of sixteen. The flotilla of praams, brigs, and luggers, were either out exercising or endeavouring to escape to Boulogne, when we (I say we, for it was my *first cruise*, and being on deck all the time, I remember it well,) attacked them. Instead of ninety-seven, there must have been more than double that number; but I believe we only actually engaged about twenty-eight, perhaps at most thirty, and *quite enough too*. Their decks were absolutely crowded with troops. Some of the brigs had two, but in general one heavy long

gun, but, from their crowded state, we suffered much more from the batteries than from them. Again, I don't think we were engaged so long as three hours, and *no* reinforcement was coming out of Havre-de-Grace when we discontinued the action.

We were getting into very shoal water, and our position was become critical; one beautiful long, low brig, which it was supposed approached with the intention of throwing a couple of hundred soldiers on our decks, was dismasted by us, and three others driven on shore; several long row boats (similar to deal galleys) which, from the number of oars they pulled, the seamen nicknamed Centipedes, *did* come out of the pier, and took the dismasted brig in tow, and also went to the assistance of those we had driven on shore. No reinforcement was wanted on their part.

Nottinghamshire, 12th April 1832. O.

ANECDOTE OF A FRENCH OFFICER AT EL BODON.

BY AN EYE-WITNESS.

At the charge made by the whole of the French cavalry at El Bodon, on the square formed by the 5th and 77th regiments, a French officer had his horse shot under him, and both fell together. The officer, although not much hurt, lay on the ground as if dead, and in this situation, would, in all probability, have escaped,—as the French infantry were fast advancing to the relief of their cavalry, had it not been for a German hussar, one squadron of whom were engaged in the conflict, who rode up to the spot, and made a cut at the officer lying on the ground; on which he immediately sprang up, and with his sword at the guard, set the German at defiance. Another of the King's German hussars then galloped up, and desired the French officer to surrender, which he refused to do. The appearance of the officer in this position was truly heroic. He stood without his cap; his head was bare, and some marks of blood were on his face. From the fine attitude he presented, and being a tall athletic man, he strongly impressed the beholders with the belief that he would defend himself against both the hussars. At this time, Ensign Canch, of the 5th, ran out of the square, and was proceeding rapidly to the place, in the hope of inducing the officer to surrender himself a prisoner; but the hussars finding they were baffled, and could not subdue this brave man with the sword, had recourse to the pistol, with which they killed him, to the great regret of the British regiments that were looking on.

This affair took place about half-way between the square already mentioned and the French cavalry, who were still hovering about after being repulsed by the 5th and 77th Regiments.

We were informed by a prisoner taken at the time, that the officer who defended himself so gallantly against the two hussars, was an Irishman, and the Major of his regiment.

EXPLOITS OF BRITISH DRAGOONS.

In addition to the gallant exploits performed by humble individuals of the British Cavalry inserted in former Numbers, we have been furnished by an old Peninsular Dragoon with the following.

A few days after the battle of Vittoria, a patrole of the 14th Light Dragoons, consisting of an officer, Corporal Field, and privates Mouldy

and Powell, charged the rear-guard of the French column retiring through the small town of Ostiz, near Pampeluna, and took twenty-seven infantry prisoners, whom they brought in safe to the head-quarters of the regiment, under circumstances of some difficulty.

At the battle of Ayr, in France, Serjeant-Major Vernon, of the same regiment, with six privates, charged and forced the passage of a bridge, obstinately defended. He was shot through the lungs, but recovered. On the same day, privates Rose and Craig, of the same regiment, being orderlies to Sir W. Stewart, cut their way, before his face, into a close column of the enemy, and brought out safely a serjeant of the 71st, who had been taken prisoner, having overheard the General regretting his loss as being his favourite orderly. Rose was shot through the arm, and Craig's horse received eight musket-shot wounds, but lived to carry him safe out of the column.

I cannot but agree with your correspondent J. M. that it is a delusion to believe that squares cannot be broken by cavalry, and it is certainly mischievous to a degree to be always teaching the latter to think so. I am of opinion, that when it is practicable to choose the point of attack, it may frequently be done. Squares should be charged at one of the angles, and with not too large an attacking front, in preference to the faces.

MY LAST CIGAR.

Late on the eve of the memorable battle of Waterloo, the regiment to which I belonged took up its position on that hard-fought field, in front of Hougoumont, or more properly speaking the Château de Goumont, a strong farm-house, and the key-stone of the British line. The sun set red, ominously foretelling stormy weather, and about dark the rain descended in torrents. Our situation, as may easily be conceived, was none of the most enviable, being totally destitute of tents or field *matériel;* we bivouacked in line, and here and there might be seen through the murky gloom of night, men huddled together, trying to retain that animal heat so necessary to our existence, to say nothing of our comfort. A party of half a dozen of us gathered round a fire of half-ignited logs of wood, trying by every means ingenuity could invent to nurse it into flame, and prevent the rain utterly drowning its genial influence. We were sitting despondingly wet, and talking over our probable fates in the morrow's fight, when by some unaccountable influence, I put my hand into the side pocket of my grey great-coat; I felt a something—I withdrew my hand, with a mingled feeling of joy and fear—joy occasioned by the unlooked-for discovery; fear from a dread of being disappointed if I prosecuted my search without ultimate success; when, having essayed again, to my great delight and to the envy of my companions, I pulled out a cigar—my last cigar—I seized the half-ignited stick and applied it to the weed,—alas! no smoke rewarded my efforts; I cursed my folly for so carelessly exposing it in my pocket: I wetted it, I rolled it, and unrolled it; in fact, I tried all the arts that smokers have invented to doctor a bad cigar, when after half-an-hour's patient endeavour, I elicited a blue curling cloud from my last cigar. Happy moment! Though years have intervened, never have I forgotten that most ecstatic speck in the few hours of terrestrial happiness I have met with. H. K. S.

FOREIGN MISCELLANY.

FRANCE.

THE FRENCH ARMY.

In our last we stated in round numbers the numerical force of the regular French Army. The following details, which include all ranks and descriptions, show the composition and training of that vast body.

Besides the marshals and lieutenant-generals, there are 250 marechaux-de-camp, or major-generals.

The staff corps is composed of 33 colonels, 33 lieutenant-colonels, 109 chiefs of battalion, and 226 captains, besides 80 officers of the Etat Major de Place, and a corps d'intendance (of administration).

There are 1333 medical officers, and 703 officers employed in the interior economy of corps, and in the clothing department. In the camp equipage department there are 45 officers employed, 1400 workmen, and in the train of equipages 3315 men.

The troops of the line consist of 67 regiments, or 268 battalions, making a total of 242,540 men. 21 regiments of light infantry, or 63 battalions, amounting to 56,385 men; the foreign legion of 3 battalions, 30 companies of fusiliers sedentaires, and 89 companies of veterans, compose a body of upwards of 20,000 men, to which the custom-house officers may be added, as they are all soldiers, and consist of 20,000 effectives.

The cavalry of the French army is composed of—

12 regiments of cuirassiers	13,752
18 regiments of the line	21,708
And 20 regiments of light cavalry	25,320
Total	60,780

The artillery consists of 8 lieutenant-generals, 14 marshals-de-camp, and 296 officers of different grades; store-keepers, &c. 571; and 11 regiments of artillery 28,402; 1 battalion of pontooners 1513, 12 companies of workmen 1248, 1 company of armourers 104, and 6 squadrons of the train of the park, forming a total of 37,360 men.

There are 12 generals of engineers, and 380 officers of all ranks, and 500 storekeepers, &c.; 3 regiments of engineers 7668, 3 companies of the waggon-train 375, and 1 company of armourers 154; total 9089 men in the engineer department. The municipal guards, gens d'armes, colonial troops, Algerine chasseurs, and coast guard, amount to 19,238, making a gran total of 472,642 men.

This immense army is well armed, well clothed, and the whole of the appointments of the best description.

A regiment of 3 battalions of infantry has 1 colonel, 1 lieutenant-colonel, 3 chiefs of battalion, 1 major, 3 adjutants-major, 1 treasurer or paymaster, 1 officer of clothing, 1 assistant-treasurer, 1 carrier of the colours, 1 surgeon-major, and 1 assistant-surgeon, 24 captains, 24 lieutenants, and 24 sub-lieutenants; non-commissioned officers, musicians, drummers, furriers, storekeepers, and workmen, amount to 534, grenadiers 276, voltigeurs 276, fusileers 1643, making a total of 2723 men.

A cavalry regiment upon the war establishment has 1 colonel, 1 lieutenant-colonel, 3 chefs d'escadron, 1 major, 1 captain of instruction, or riding-master, 3 adjutants-major, 1 treasurer, 1 assistant-treasurer, 1 captain of clothing, 1 standard-bearer, 1 surgeon-major, 1 assistant-surgeon, 1 veterinary-surgeon, 1 assistant, and 36 other officers, and of non-commissioned officers and soldiers, amounting to 948 men.

The swords of the French cavalry are in general very good, being longer and lighter in the blade than those of the British cavalry, and, therefore,

better calculated for service. Infantry as well as cavalry corps have a fencing-master, and every officer and soldier is carefully instructed in the use of the weapon which he carries. The discipline of the French troops is conducted, as far as the musket and bayonet are concerned, on very proper principles. The recruit is directed to repeat after the instructor, the words of command for every motion of the firelock, and he accordingly acquires a knowledge at the same time of the different words of command, as well as of the motions.

Marching is easily acquired by a French recruit, as all school-boys, nay the very children are taught to march; but with respect to dressing in the ranks, wheeling, and preserving distances in open column, the French infantry are very deficient. The cavalry are bad horsemen, and their horses ill-trained. In marching in line, or column, dressing is not attended to by the officers; and in wheeling there does not appear to be any fixed principle whatever.

A French regiment of infantry generally consists of three battalions, and is about the same strength as a brigade in the British service. The three battalions draw up in the field as a brigade, and the colonel, or in his absence, the lieutenant-colonel acts as a brigade-general, each battalion being commanded by a chef de battalion; and whether the regiment is in line or column, the words of command and explanations given by the colonel are repeated by all the chiefs of battalion; and though this repetition is necessary when the troops are in line, it has a bad effect when the regiment is in column, and from the confusion of orders and explanations, it seems more likely to mislead the corps in the execution of the evolution, than to produce clearness of conception on the part of the officers of the regiment. One important advantage is produced by the French regiments being composed of three or more battalions: their superior officers are accustomed to command a larger body of troops than a single corps, and are thus well instructed, and constantly practise the duties of a general officer before they obtain that rank in the service.

The French infantry are formed in three ranks, but in firing, the rear rank men hand their muskets to their file leaders, receive the discharged arms from the men in the front and centre ranks, load them and deliver them back to their file leaders, and thus the fire of three ranks is actually thrown upon the enemy. In firing three deep, the front rank kneeling, the French troops do not close their ranks sufficiently, and I have no doubt that in the hurry of action, many of the front rank men are shot through the head, as I have frequently observed that the muzzles of the rear rank men's arms, seldom clear the shoulders of the front rank. In firing by companies or divisions, the officers retire to the rear, and give their words of command from positions in which it is impossible for them to see that the men direct their fire properly.

In marching, the French infantry are equal to any troops in the world in bearing fatigue, but their arms are not good, and they are very clumsy and quite too heavy. It is very strange that governments do not see the propriety of equipping their troops, and adopting a system of discipline founded on principles of common sense. The object of all arming and military instruction should be to destroy the enemy; and were good firelocks provided, and troops carefully instructed in their use, three fourths of their fire would do execution at a given distance, and there would be much less ammunition expended than at present, and we should not hear of armies of 200,000 men fighting for an entire day, without the killed and wounded amounting to more than 25,000 men.

The evolutions practised by the French troops are of the old school. In echelon movements they are very deficient; the parallelism of the divisions is hardly ever preserved, and the formation of the line seldom executed with accuracy and facility. Retiring from the flanks of companies by files is sometimes practised by the French infantry, but there is so little atten-

tion paid to marching upon ascertained points, or in the preservation of distances, or in closing up the files, that when halted or fronted, the ranks require a great deal of time to be dressed before the battalion can be wheeled into line. In changing the front of a line of three battalions to the left, open columns of companies were formed on the right company of each, the left column wheeled a quarter of the circle to the left, and then deployed into line; the two other columns wheeled also to the left upon segments of much larger circles, and deployed into line, dressing upon the left battalion. Nothing could be more clumsy and unmeaning than this evolution, as the change of front might have been executed with ease and accuracy in one third of the time.

When the line was to be changed to the left, the left battalion should have wheeled by companies to the left, and deployed to the right into line; the two other battalions, by wheeling into echelon to their left, could have marched upon the shortest lines, and formed with precision (without losing a moment) upon the halted corps. The French infantry and cavalry continue to practise the *countermarch*, an evolution which no competent tactician can ever deem necessary. Why it is still a part of the British regulations has never been explained. The changing the front of a line by a countermarch upon the centre, either by files or by divisions, shows a scanty knowledge of tactics, and could not be executed in presence of an enemy, without exposing the troops to destruction. Why is not a more simple plan of battalion formation adopted, by which the line may be enabled to act towards the rear as well as to the front, and to either flank, without any previous preparation, and the delay and dangers of a countermarch be entirely avoided? Such a plan is not difficult of suggestion, or impracticable in execution. It may be established in an hour, and give to regiments and to larger bodies, such facility in all necessary evolutions as never yet has been attained.

The French troops either wheel forward, or face to the right or left, and march by files into column. This method is certainly to be preferred to wheeling backward, but if it be necessary to maintain the ground upon which the line stands, why not face to the right about, and wheel forward into column? They practise retiring by files from the flanks of the battalion, the heads of which meet in the rear of the centre, and wheel to the rear. Both cavalry and infantry perform this awkward evolution without being either covered by skirmishers or light infantry. Can any movement be more dangerous, or present a more inviting situation for attack?

Simplicity in military manœuvres should be one great object with the tactician; and another of the utmost importance is to form the troops in such a manner, that they can act with the greatest promptitude and effect, and form to the front, or to either flank without a moment's delay. All file marching should, therefore, be carefully avoided, and close columns be the general formation upon the largest front that the ground will admit of. Should any change of front be required, the column can wheel upon its ground to either flank, and immediately deploy into line.

In the late reign a corps of 30,000 men, commanded by a marshal of France (Prince Hohenloe), were assembled near Paris, and the evolutions were intended to represent a battle in which the French had been victorious. The troops were formed in two lines, with artillery on each flank, and several corps of light troops were detached in front, and commenced the action. I placed myself in the rear of one of the battalions of the guard royal, in order the more conveniently to observe the manner in which commanding officers of brigades and regiments performed their duty. Shortly after the firing of the troops in advance had begun, the artillery moved forward, and cannonaded the supposed enemy, though their own light troops were in their front; but neither cavalry nor infantry were ordered to support the artillery. While this was taking place on the right, the enemy was understood to be retiring on their left, and forming in the plain to

attack the centre of the French army; a partial change of front was ordered, and during this evolution, the cavalry of the guard made two or three charges, but they were constantly repulsed by the enemy's artillery. The French infantry having completed their lines, which were composed of half Swiss and half native regiments, opened their fire, and continued it about ten minutes, when an order was given for the second line to pass through the first, which had, it was supposed, suffered severely. In executing this operation, I perceived that the commanding officer of the battalion of royal guards seemed greatly at a loss what to do, upon which his drum-major addressed him very familiarly, and said, "Monsieur le Colonel, wheel or throw back the left division, or every company, and that will enable the Swiss to pass." "Merci, Monsieur Major," said the commanding officer; the order was given, and through the Swiss regiment passed at the quickest pace, the drums beating the charge.

At this moment I observed the French Marshal, attended by a numerous staff, riding briskly in front of a corps which had been posted *en potence;* and to my great surprise this corps, whether by mistake or accident I cannot decide, fired several times by companies, grand divisions, and wings, on their own field-marshal and staff, before the order to cease was received.

When the review was concluded, an officer of the royal guard, to whom I was slightly known, asked my opinion of the operations of the day. I gave my sentiments very candidly, by observing that the guards looked very well, handled their arms with ease and accuracy, but that they consumed too much time in their formations, which I attributed to the battalion officers not being charged with the dressing of their companies on the march, with their covering in column, nor with the preservation of the proper distances between their divisions. "Well," said the French officer, "that may be so, but we follow the rules laid down by the *Great General* of the age, and do not believe that they can be improved. Have we not conquered all Europe by an adherence to these rules, and are not our tactics copied by all the armies which we have subdued, and by all the nations in the world?" "I must except one nation," said I, "and that is Great Britain. We never adopted the French system of tactics; we had one of our own, which was put in practice in Egypt, at Maida, and at Waterloo. Our system is simple, and easily understood. We know the use of offensive arms both at sea and on shore, and when we meet an enemy, our desire is to close with him without ceremony or delay, and decide the quarrel by close and decisive combat." "Well, well, I admit you are a brave and resolute nation; but had it not been for your superior fleets, and the sea which separates France from Great Britain, which we could not march across, perhaps the conquest of your country had been added to our other triumphs." "I should be sorry, Monsieur, to say anything which would militate against your *amour propre*, but I must assure you that Britain was an armed nation during the latter period of the war to which we have alluded, and had it been as easy to invade England as Spain or Portugal, the same spirit and determination which enabled the British Government to reconquer these kingdoms, and wrest them from the gripe of France, would have presented on the British soil a host of freemen ready and competent to defeat the invaders, and to maintain the freedom and independence of their country." "Well, Monsieur Anglais," said he, "both the French and the English nations are very brave, and I hope they will long continue good friends. You know that some prejudices still exist on both sides of the Channel; I hope the intercourse which is taking place between the two countries will speedily remove them, and that France and England, enjoying the blessings of rational liberty, will view each other with feelings of reciprocal regard, and long cherish the most cordial sentiments of esteem arising from the just admiration of their national characters."

ALFRED.

REFUGEES.

Amongst the foreign military, who have sought an asylum in France, there would appear to be an extraordinary number of commissioned officers, namely, 1691 Poles, and 1101 Spaniards; the non-commissioned and privates of the former nation being only 737, and of the latter 1102. Some doubt seems to be entertained, whether a great many of these emigrants have not thrown themselves upon the bounty of the French Government under false pretences,—as stained with civil, rather than political, offences. The allowances made to these refugees amounted last year to 800,000*l.*; but, for the present year, they are estimated at 1,500,000*l.*—*Guizot's Rep. to the Chamber of Deputies, Sess.* 1832.

ROYAL AIDES-DE-CAMP, &c.

It appears that the six aides-de-camp attached to the French king's personal service are to receive an annual addition to their pay of twelve thousand francs (about 480*l.*) The sixteen orderly officers (*officiers d'ordonnance*) who have just been appointed, will wear the uniform peculiar to the description of force to which they appertain, with the addition of an *aiguillette* of gold or silver, in character with the corps in which they hold commissions. After a year's service, besides two at the most near the person of the sovereign, they are to resume their former station in the ranks. Their service will be altogether distinct from that of the king's aids-de-camp, though they will be always under their orders.

FRENCH NAVY.

From the law concerning promotion, which has just been published, we collect the subsequent regulations:—

No individual can hold the rank of lieutenant on board of a frigate, unless he has served two years in a king's ship, either as a midshipman (*élève*) of the first class, or auxiliary-lieutenant, or chief-master; if holding the latter rank, he must have seen service in a ship or frigate, and undergone examination in the theory of navigation and the practice of nautical affairs.

No one can become lieutenant on board a ship-of-the-line unless he has served two years in that capacity on board of a frigate.

To be captain of a corvette, the officer must have served four years, at least, as a lieutenant in a ship-of-the-line.

To be captain of a frigate, he must have served four years at least as a captain of the corvette; and to be captain of a ship-of-the-line, he must have served at least two years as captain of a frigate, and have held some command at sea for four years, dating from his appointment as lieutenant of a ship-of-the-line.

There can be no promotion to the rank of Rear-Admiral, unless the officer shall have served three years as captain of a ship-of-the-line (one-half whereof as commanding officer of a squadron of three king's ships), or have served as captain of a ship-of-the-line for eight years, of which four have been passed in positive command.

None but a Rear-Admiral, who, as such, has commanded a squadron of five vessels at least, can be promoted to the rank of a Vice-Admiral.

Two-thirds of the appointments of lieutenancies on board of ships-of-the-line are to be given according to seniority: and in the appointments of captains of corvettes and frigates, one moiety are to be given according to the same rule.

In times of war, the term of service required for passing from one grade to another may be abridged one-half by the sovereign.

Officers, who may be made prisoners of war, shall not lose their rights with respect to seniority in promotions.

No promotion can take place out of the prescribed course (*hors du cadre*), nor can any honorary appointments whatever be made.

MARINE ARTILLERY.

The Minister of the Marine has directed a new ship, the Navarino, of 100 guns, to be built; she will have two decks only, in accordance with the new system, and like Le Suffrein, will carry none but thirty-pounders. The lower tier will consist of long guns, the second will be of shorter barrels, and the third and uppermost of carronades, all of the same calibre. The officers of the French navy are said to approve highly of this reform in their marine artillery, for which the service is indebted to two of the most distinguished of its naval engineers. The advantage of the new system appears to consist in the adaptability of the balls to every gun on board, which will do away with the serious impediments arising, during an engagement, from the necessity of supplying projectiles of dissimilar sizes.

FRIGATES.

There are at this moment thirty-two in course of building, viz. thirteen of sixty; seventeen of fifty-two; and two of forty-six guns.

RUSSIA.

The first number of the Russian "*Journal of the Ministry for the Home Department,*" enables us to supply some authentic details of no inconsiderable moment, with regard to the present state of the population and military resources of the Muscovite empire. The former, as it appears from the census completed in 1829, exhibited the following aspect under a general point of view:—

Individuals of the male sex.	
1. Taxable, or enjoying remission from taxation	19,097,621
2. Persons not taxed	727,332
3. The military	747,657
4. Reported by the local authorities, but not returned in the official lists	427,685*
	21,000,295
Approximate number of the inhabitants of Grusia, Imeritia, Mingrelia, Armenian peasantry, Achalzuk, the Mahometan province of the Trans-Caucasian territory, Bessarabia (so far as they are exempt from taxation or have no particular avocations), foreigners temporarily resident in Russia, or not registered, on a moderate computation	999,805
	22,000,100
Individuals of the female sex.	
Estimated as somewhat below the number of males	21,699,900
	43,700,000
Kingdom of Poland, of Grand-duchy of Finland, males and females	5,300,000
Total	49,000,000

The *male* population of Poland is stated at 2,019,153, and that of Finland at 635,634.

The *discharged soldiers*, who are become independent settlers and pay taxes, amount to 20,981,; *clergy*, of all denominations, inclusive of their children and 4592 monks, 218,418; *untaxed discharged soldiers*, 4398; and individuals, *attached to the imperial palaces*, 1692.

* Amongst these we find 19,889 *children of superior officers;* and 85,791 *discharged soldiers;* as likewise 16,381 *foreigners.*

The *Cossacks* are thus enumerated, under the head of the "Cossack army," exempt from taxes:—

	Officers.	Cossacks.
Of the Don	1585	90,223
Tschernomorskishes	509	57,679
Along the Caucasian line	308	52,507
In the Astrachan territory	282	12,079
Orenburg	617	31,160
Stawropol	58	1,790
Bashkir	4241	160,689
Mersherak	872	29,709
Siberia	—	7,534
Cossacks of the line	229	19,776
Total	8701	463,146

The nomadic *Kalmuks* are returned at 28,341; and the nomadic *Kirgishes* at 68,810.

PRUSSIA.

MARSHAL BLUCHER AND HIS ANCESTRY.

Talent has been a species of heir-loom in certain families; and this is again brought to proof in the instance of the great Prussian soldier, whose forefathers must, by the possession of qualities which are not of every day occurrence, have at least entitled themselves to the celebrity recorded in *La Paige's Bibliotheca Prœmonstratensis Ordin.* However ridiculously imaginative the special circumstances reported in the Chronicle may have been, the author tells us, that Ulrich, Bishop of Rutzeburgh, one of the noble family of the Blüchers, surpassed every other, by universal consent, in all virtues; "*omnes, omnium consensu, virtutibus omnibus anteibat.*" He cared especially for the poor, and when at times he had no longer wherewith to bestow his bounties upon them, he showed them by "showers of tears" how deeply he commiserated their condition, and consoled them with the most endearing expressions of sympathy under their poverty and distress. Once, when provisions had become enormously dear, we are told that he distributed his whole stock of grain amongst the indigent; and, there being still a crowd of them importuning him for succour, he was reminded by his steward that there was no alternative left but to send them away. Ulrich, in reply, however, having ordered him to proceed to his granary and divide what he should find there among the supplicants, the steward, upon opening the doors, found that it had been miraculously replenished at every corner! We are informed also, that this prelate was as anxious for their souls and morals, as for their bodily wants. When asked, upon his deathbed, whether he desired that his brother, Herrmann, should be chosen to succeed him, he answered—"No, for it is an evil thing that the Lord's sanctuary should descend by inheritance." Ulrich died in 1275, and though his brother was passed over at the election immediately succeeding, he was elected, on account of his extraordinary merits, at that which followed.

Another of the warrior's ancestry, *Wipert Blücher*, was raised to the same bishoprick in the year 1354. He was a man, we are told, who stood high in repute for his piety and sanctity of manners; though Pope Innocent refused to confirm his appointment on account of his youth. So soon as this intelligence reached him, he bent in earnest supplication before the Deity, beseeching Him to afford him some token of his will and pleasure with him. And the Lord, says our Chronicle, listened to his prayer. During the course of the ensuing night, his beard grew so grey and to so great a length, and his appearance became altogether so venerable, that the Holy Father, failing to recognize the person of the bishop-elect when he was presented to him the next day, instantly granted him prelatical investiture;

sequenti nocte adeo barbatus canus et venerabilis factus est, ut postero die, iterum summo Pontifici oblatus, non agnoscretur. He was of a lofty and dauntless spirit *(animo excelso atque imperterrito).* As evidence of this characteristic it is recorded, that when Albert, Duke of Mecklenburgh, turned to wicked ways and denied his subjects justice, Bishop Blücher addressed him in firm and awful language *(hæc ea voce, terrifice dixit)*, saying —"Duke Albert, in recompense of thy humility and benevolence, God has exalted thee to honour, power, and riches; but, inasmuch as thou repayest this dispensation with miserable ingratitude, and forgettest the blessings implored for thee by those who came before me, I will curse and not bless thee, as commissioned by the divine authority; and thou knowest well, that God heareth the prayer of his servants when wrongfully persecuted." And saying this, the Bishop commanded his episcopal vestments to be brought in to him, that he might pronounce sentence of excommunication against the Duke; but the Prince's heart quailed within him, as if an angel's voice had sounded in his ears, and he ceased from all his iniquity. This Bishop Wipert, of the Blücher line, died at Ratzeburgh in May 1372.—*(From Professor Raumer's Correspondence.)*

TURKEY.

At the close of March last, the Sultan promoted Dilaver Bey, Skender Bey, and Bekir Bey, from colonelcies to brigadier-generalships; and at the same time raised them to the rank of pashas. They were afterwards admitted to an audience and admonished by his Highness to the following right-soldierlike effect. "It no longer admits of dispute that an acquaintance with the science of war must be of great public utility; the effect of the knowledge which it imparts, has been to exalt the military in general estimation above every other rank in life. I have never hesitated to reward such as have distinguished themselves in this career by personal merit. Your zeal, gallantry, and talents have not escaped my notice; you owe it to yourselves alone, that you have attained to the honourable station which I have just conferred upon you, and I charge you never to forget the duties which it imposes upon you. Let your whole thoughts centre upon the honour and splendid name which it will assure you amongst your equals. *Let the field of battle, therefore, be your pleasure and ambition;* and remember, that I require, after the fatigues of the day are over, that you dedicate your leisure hours to studying the various branches of tactics and strategetics. Be unremitting in the acquisition of knowledge, as a means of enhancing the value of your devotion and fidelity to my person. Ever recollect, that discipline is the pledge of order and concord, and that order alone is the source of power. The foundation of all military success lies in obedience, and it does not long continue a stranger to the soldier, who heartily pants for it; *victory is the guerdon, which Providence vouchsafes to resolution and perseverance.* The officer's reputation and the rewards after which he may reasonably aspire, depend singly upon his sword, *in the same way as the soldier's depend upon the point of his bayonet.* Engrave these words in your heart; and the affection which I bear my troops will as surely attend you as every other warrior who is unceasingly ambitious of obtaining distinction amongst the gallant souls who are armed in my defence." The Sultan after this exhortation delivered them the insignia of their rank.

FIELD MARSHALSHIP.

On the 14th of the same month (March), Hussein Pasha was commanded to wait upon the Sultan at the Tsheragan palace, where he was invested with the dignity and insignia of *Serdari-Ekrem,* or Field-Marshal; the office itself being of recent creation, and Hussein the first who has been raised to it. On this occasion, the Sultan threw a sable harvani over his shoulders, and presented him with a sabre richly set with diamonds, and two beauti-

fully-caparisoned chargers. Hussein is esteemed the most distinguished leader in Mahmud's service.

STANDARD OF THE PROPHET.

The standards which the Turks have been of old accustomed to make use of, are of various colours; but the great standard, or what is more commonly denominated "the Standard of the Prophet," (the *Ssandshâk Sherif,*) is not green, as some have asserted, but black; and it must necessarily be of this colour, inasmuch as it was instituted in imitation of, and in direct contra-distinction to, the great *white* banner of the Koraishites, as well as from the appellation "*Okab,*" (black eagle,) which the Prophet bestowed upon it. Mahomet's earliest standard was the white cloth forming the turban which he captured from Boreide; but he adopted for his subsequent ensign, at least for his distinguishing banner, the sable curtain which hung before the chamber of Ajesha, his wife. This sacred standard it is, which, as being the most venerable of relics among Mussulmen warriors, is kept wrapped up in two and forty folds in time of peace, and preserved in a valuable box within a species of chapel in the seraglio. It descended first to the followers of Omar, at Damascus, and thence to the Abassides at Bagdad and Cairo, from whom it fell to the share of the bloodhound, Selim the First, and subsequently found its way into Europe under Amurath the Third. It is never unfolded but at the last extremity of some disastrous campaign or intestine convulsion; and on these occasions, warning is publicly given three days beforehand to all infidels that they avoid looking upon it, on pain of death. After all, it may reasonably be doubted, whether it be possible, that the wasting hand of twelve centuries and more can have left the smallest fragment of this relic of a "curtained chamber" intact?

JAVA.

In some parts of Java the *radees,* or nobles, wear a girdle of gold lace, about five or six inches broad, with a massive gold clasp, frequently set with precious stones, as a symbol of their rank. Their arms are in the highest degree costly, and there is nothing they possess which they deem so precious. These arms consist of a *krees,* or dagger, with a straight or curved blade; a *badeh,* likewise a dagger, with a straight blade and bent hilt; *golloks, klewangs,* and *tjoudrehs,* which are a species of weapons used in stag-hunting; and the *wading,* a short but broad knife, which they are required to wear at court. The daggers are thrust into the girdle, either on the right or left side; but, where a mark of respect is desired to be shown, they are worn behind the back. Some of these weapons are several hundred pounds in value, the blades alone costing from twenty to thirty pounds: this value, it is true, is derived from the scabbards being of gold, set with precious stones or rubies. The blades are damasked and their value depends upon the *pamor,* or figures and characters traced upon them, which are interpreted for the wearer by his priest: if the pamor be of evil omen, no inducement on earth will reconcile the Javanese to wear the weapon in his girdle.

The most distinguished class amongst the Javanese warriors are the *Pradjuriets,* or *Pandeikars,* who are generally at the head of their troops when in action, or sent out as skirmishers to annoy the enemy. In those parts of the island where a semblance of independence has been allowed to survive by the Dutch government, the sons of the first families serve as pradjuriets, and are generally very expert in the use of their arms. As horsemen, their betters could not easily be found, and it is well worth the trouble to witness their tournaments, which are frequently given at Surakarta, where the Emperor marshals them, or at Djocjokarta, within the precincts of the Sultan's residence. Any one, who has witnessed the assault of a Javanese corps for the first time in his life, will acknowledge that it carries great apparent terror along with it. Conceive some thousands of

Indian combatants, armed in various fashions, intoxicated with opium, their long black hair floating across their faces, their mouths and gesticulations hurling defiance, and several hundred of gongs roaring at every point; conceive such a horde of savages making an attack on a couple of hundred Europeans. Maddened by the influence of opium, they rush on to the slaughter like wild beasts, and are cheered in their onset by their priests, who are usually robed in white, in order that they may be easily distinguished, and with a sword in one hand and the Koran in the other, inspirit them to the fray with the *Orang-kapirs*, or infidels. Though they have taken after Europeans in the use of standards, yet their prince's rallying sign continues to be *payong*, or par-a-sol, which is the peculiar object of respect and veneration amongst the Javanese bands. The *tombak pussaka*, or lances hallowed by age, which they have inherited from their ancient sovereigns, serve for the same purpose as the payongs, and are distinguished by the horse-tails which dangle from them.—*Colonel Pfiffer's Sketches of Java.*

REVIEWS AND CRITICAL NOTICES.

THE DOGMAS OF THE CONSTITUTION. BY PROFESSOR PARK.

The volume bearing the above title comprises four out of a course of lectures delivered in the first term of King's College, London, by Professor J. J. Park, upon whose constitutional learning and clear judgment they reflect the highest credit. The Professor's views of this subject are in some respect original, his arguments are universally deliberate and logical, and his deductions, to those who read for information, are clear and convincing. The lectures form, in fact, an essay, in a pure style of philosophical reasoning, upon the theory and practice of the British Constitution, distinguishing that which is *real* and right from that which is merely *traditional* and wrong in the system.

At the present moment such a work cannot be too widely and attentively perused. Our limits will not permit us to enter into an analysis of its contents—but to show the ground upon which the author stands, and thereby induce unprejudiced readers to take him for a guide as impartial as he is competent, we here quote his profession of faith:—

"It will be seen from the following pages that the writer is neither Whig nor Tory,—that neither 'Reformer' nor 'Anti-Reformer' would define his school of politics,—but that he is a disciple, or promoter, whichever the reader may choose, of the nascent school of *inductive politics* or *observational* political science;—a science, which, leaving on the right hand and on the left all conventional principles which have hitherto been accredited, to be ultimately adopted, or rejected, as scientific judgment and resolution alone shall decide, seeks first, and above all things, to elevate the vague and notional element of political philosophy to the rank of the certain sciences, or, as they are felicitously denominated by French authors, '*les sciences d'observation.*' His business he represents to himself to be, not to reject *or* idolize the wisdom of his ancestors; but to stand upon their shoulders, and try how much further he can see. Wedded to no party in politics, and having nothing to seek from any,—abominating, from the very bottom of his heart, the politics of irresponsible power, and having waged as implacable a war with those politics as ever private individual did wage, during the whole course of Lord Castlereagh's administration,—he has given ample security to those who know him that despotism never shall enlist him under her banners."

*** We are, as usual, straitly pressed for room. A large batch of publications remains for notice in our next.

GENERAL CORRESPONDENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNITED SERVICE JOURNAL.

Sir William Inglis on a passage in a recent account of the Battle of Albuhera.

Mr. Editor,—Having seen a military work lately published, which is entitled "Further Strictures on those parts of Colonel Napier's History of the Peninsular War which relate to General Lord Viscount Beresford's Military Opinions and Conduct," I will thank you to insert the following remark in reference to the firing on the Spaniards, which is mentioned to have occurred shortly after the commencement of the battle of Albuhera.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

May 20th, 1832. W. Inglis, Lt.-General.

The second division of the British army engaged at Albuhera, was under the command of Major-Gen. the Hon. William Stewart. The third brigade in that division was the one that was commanded by Major-Gen. Houghton, and was composed of the 29th, first battalion of the 57th, first battalion 48th. The whole division moved from its ground in open columns of companies right in front, about a mile, when the line was to be formed on the leading company.

At this period the Spaniards were warmly engaged with the enemy, and were behaving most gallantly. Gen. Stewart's division was brought up to support them, and to form the second line.

After the 29th and the right wing of the 57th had formed, a body of French lancers got between the two lines. The right platoon of the 29th was ordered to disperse them: the fire from this body flew rapidly to the left, and in consequence was taken up by the 57th.

Colonel Inglis, who commanded the latter regiment, was, it so happened, at that moment wholly employed in the act of correcting an error which had occurred in the formation of the centre of his regiment; in which, owing to the rain that fell, and the thickness of the atmosphere which it occasioned, joined to their having met with a piece of hollow ground, the 5th company had lost its perpendicularity, and doubled behind the 4th, whereby the centre of the regiment became crowded; Colonel Inglis having also at the same time his horse shot under him.

It was at this moment, and whilst Colonel Inglis's attention was thus unavoidably taken off, that the firing, which has been mentioned, happened: but almost instantly Colonel Inglis was again, though dismounted, in front of his right wing, and gave the command to order arms, which was immediately obeyed.

Whilst speaking to his men on what had occurred, Gen. Houghton and a Spanish officer came up to him, and complained that the Spaniards had been fired upon. Colonel Inglis expressed his concern, of course, at such an occurrence, but it was a great satisfaction to him to perceive that the Spaniards themselves had happily not suffered,—a circumstance which was attributable to their position with respect to the hill at the time of firing, which occasioned the balls to pass over their heads.

Colonel Inglis then called the General's attention to the steadiness evinced by his regiment, who were standing with ordered arms under so heavy a fire from the enemy. Gen. Houghton directed Colonel Inglis not to engage till he should receive his orders to do so, and said that he himself was going to the right of his brigade, and would take off his hat to the Colonel as a signal to him when he wished him to commence.

When the signal was given (the Spaniards having retired), it was returned by the Colonel, who then ordered arms to be shouldered, and his regiment then threw in a very heavy and well-directed fire by files from the right of companies. From this period nothing more was heard of Gen. Houghton by Colonel Inglis, until his aide-de-camp, Capt. Ramsden, acquainted Colonel Inglis that he was killed.

On the Practice of Small Arms.

MR. EDITOR,—It may not be an agreeable admission for professional men, but it is nevertheless the case, that some of the most important points connected with our national services have been beaten upon us by our enemies: our men of war could not sail until the French and Spaniards showed the necessity of improving them; and the Americans have more recently taught us to be gunners to the extent which our seamen now are. Even the system of "breaking the line," whether it be attributed to Mr. Clerk of Elgin, or not, was the result of repeated failures on the part of our fleets owing to the superiority of French tactics. In like manner, it appears not improbable that in the event of another war, a similar operation may be performed with regard to "small arms," especially as the application of steam to purposes of war, will probably tend to "combined operations," and consequently to a more general use of small arms.

Now, when improvements in naval gunnery have undoubtedly taken place, it appears extraordinary to unprofessional observers, that our seamen are not more thoroughly acquainted with the practical use of the "great guns;" and it is not uncommon to hear sensible persons who have visited or been occasional passengers in His Majesty's vessels, express their surprise, that what appear to them the principal objects in a man-of-war, her guns, are apparently regarded by those employed in her as secondary concerns.

But whatever may be the propriety or impropriety of such "shore-going gentlemen's" observations respecting the "great guns;" the want of information amongst both officers and men as to the proper mode of using the arms they carry, is "*absurd.*" Not one officer in an hundred understands the proper method of using his sword, and, indeed, until very lately, many officers' swords could not be drawn from their scabbards; and, notwithstanding "Jack's" proverbial activity, a good quarter-staff player from the plough's-tail would be a hard match for him with his cutlass; whilst a farmer's labourer, who handles a hayfork, understands better how to use such an instrument than men armed with boarding-pikes do their weapons.

It is really laughable, although an amusement not unaccompanied by danger, to see the pikemen when boarders are called from the main-deck of a frigate, sticking in the hatchways, like Greeks at the straits of Thermopylæ, unable to move themselves, and threatening destruction to all who dare approach them. It may, however, be asked, "supposing the advantage of introducing the general practice of small arms into His Majesty's service be admitted, what plan can be proposed, for the country cannot afford to form expensive military establishments in times of peace?" Few advantages can be obtained without some expense, and, although the necessity of using arms does not exist in times of peace, if the practice be not introduced until the necessity does exist, it is then too late to establish or commence systems. Much expense need not however be incurred, and on service efficiency must tend to economy.

Thanks to the arrangements made by his present Majesty when Lord High Admiral, the navy has now a permanent establishment of petty officers corresponding to the non-commissioned of the army; and as in the army the duty of the non-commissioned officers is to drill the privates, so ought the petty officers in the navy to be not only the leaders but instructors of the men. By His Majesty's arrangement, when a vessel is put out of commission, the petty officers are to be received on board the flag-

ships at the ports where paid off, whence they obtain certain extent of leave to visit their friends, and then remain until some other ship or vessel is commissioned, and requires them.

In the able plan proposed by Commander Campbell, for manning the navy without the necessity of impressment,* in addition to the enrolment of seamen employed in the merchant service—which is much in accordance with what is said to be the Dutch system—he proposes that a plan which has for some years been acted upon by the Admiralty, that of bringing up a large proportion of boys in men-of-war to become men-of-war's men, shall be extended by receiving boys from healthy and respectable parents as "*apprentices,*" instead of the sickly vicious young gin-drinkers who too frequently are sent into the navy from the hospital-ship of the Marine Society, the source whence boys are now taken into the Navy to the exclusion of other, and very frequently more valuable lads, to become a nuisance to officers as their "*servants,*" instead of being stationed aloft under a smart captain of a top, &c. where they might by possibility be worked into something like order and made useful.

If, however, Capt. Campbell's plan of "apprentices" be adopted, which it is to be hoped will be the case, it is probable that from early and superior acquaintance with men-of-war, these boys would ultimately become petty officers, as being most fit for such ratings; and thus by them, and by the existing class of petty officers, a mean may be obtained of giving instruction in the practice and use of "small arms" and otherwise, throughout the navy, at little expense.

Instead of the petty officers and apprentices remaining on board flagships whilst waiting for vessels being put in commission, a spare hulk might be fitted up at Woolwich, on board of which they might be instructed in the practice and proper method of using small arms, and to or from which they might be conveyed from or to the ports where ships are paid off or commissioned in His Majesty's steam-vessels. These petty officers and apprentices, when again sent into cruisers, would instruct the men.

Woolwich is mentioned for more than one reason. The distance from London is such, that Mr. Angelo, the superintendent of sword exercise to the army, and who has applied for a similar appointment to the navy, might occasionally superintend the practice, which would be desirable, as the serjeants of marines, &c. who would probably at first be employed as instructors, are *far* from perfect in their sword exercise. The water being smooth in the river, the motion of the vessel would not affect the men's positions, which are of more consequence in the first instance than those who are not swordsmen are aware of; a proper balance of the body, and steadiness and quickness in the feet and legs, are indispensable to the proper movements of the hands and arms. After such balance and method of moving are acquired, the sword exercise may be practised on board vessels in motion. Woolwich is the station of a marine division, some of the most active serjeants of which might at first be useful in giving, whilst they also received instruction. Being in the neighbourhood of London, the depôt would at all times be within range of inspection, by the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, heads of departments, or other officers.

If it be said, "that officers ought to understand the practice of small arms and to instruct the men;" it is replied, that it may be very well to talk about what ought to be the case, but officers generally are not swordsmen; and if the few officers who do understand the use of small arms, and are aware of their importance, endeavour to introduce the practice into any ship to which they may happen to be appointed, such endeavour is counteracted by "seniors," who either not understanding the practice themselves, do not choose to consider it worthy of notice, or will not permit themselves to besurpassed by a junior.

* See U. S. Journal for April.

An officer may at his own expense supply all necessary materials for practice, and may add thereto the felicity of allowing the men to break his head or damage his cap, if they can; but unless that officer commands the ship, his exertions are in vain, and he obtains little else than jealousy, or ill will, for his endeavours.

H. Lister Maw,
Lieutenant R.N.

Note.—Mr. Angelo has invented a "pike exercise," which was exhibited before the King, when Lord High Admiral, and council. He is now applying the same, or a similar exercise to the musket, and bayonet, which would be particularly applicable to marines acting against boarders, in boats, &c.

Naval and Military Lunatic Asylum.

Mr. Editor,—I beg to thank you for the early insertion given to my last hurried communication, and to express a hope, that amongst the numerous readers of the United Service Journal, some will be found to take an interest in the subject to which I am desirous of calling their attention, and kindly come forward to assist me with their advice and support in the arduous task I have undertaken. Alas! who is there that does not call to mind some friend, or brother officer, once happy and gay as the gayest, but now the inmate of the "Maniac's Cell?" They are few, indeed, that can claim exemption from such recollections; and is not this a sufficient proof of the numbers that have fallen victims to this worst of all human diseases? The horror with which we turn away from every thing connected with insanity, and the worse than indifference with which we were accustomed to treat the sufferers from this disease, go a great way to account, not only for the accumulating numbers now existing in a state of helpless and *careless* imbecility, but also for the little exertion that has hitherto been made in providing for the proper treatment of the sick, or a correct knowledge of the disease. As I observed in my last, both Sir James M'Grigor and Sir William Burnett have done what they could to provide for the comfort of a few officers and men, and to secure their being properly treated by professional men of talent and of some experience; but the means put at their disposal have been very inadequate to the fulfilment of their enlightened and benevolent views, and never can be made efficient.

The establishment which I propose, and which I hope to live to see completed, will consist of two distinct hospitals (and hospital, Sir, is the proper term for such a building); asylum has been assumed, and come into general use, and has led, I have no doubt, to confirm the abuses which, if they did not arise, have too often been confirmed by the misapplication of terms. Houses built, or otherwise taken, for the treatment of the insane, were considered only with reference to their becoming a secure *asylum*, where the afflicted could be kept in utter seclusion from the world. Architects planned and magistrates selected what was considered more as a safe and commodious prison-house, than an hospital for the cure of sick; and I fear there is too much of this feeling still remaining in this country. What I propose, I must again repeat, is two distinct hospitals; one for the navy and another for the army, built nearly upon the same plan, and made as conformable as possible to the common barrack establishments throughout the kingdom; but both to be under the same government and the same economical management as is practised on board a ship-of-war, or in a military hospital upon the regimental plan. A naval surgeon will be resident in the naval hospital, and a staff surgeon in that belonging to the army; while a non-resident officer, of higher rank, shall have the uncontrolled direction of both. A deputy-purveyor and a purser will be the only other officers required, and the keepers or orderlies can be selected from the veterans of each service. I think we may be able to make the establishments suffi-

ciently large to receive the officers of the East India Company's service, and I think also we may contrive to combine with them, in a manner both useful and beneficial, a properly arranged establishment for the care and confinement of criminal lunatics, which has now become so essentially necessary in this country, and which, ere long, the Government will be under the necessity of providing. I shall not intrude further for this month. I do not mean to ask for any contributions until my plans are before the public, and these I hope will be ready next month. In the mean time, I again entreat that some of your gallant readers, who have a heart to feel for another's woe, will come forward to cheer me on my dreary way, for I have commenced this undertaking without either friend or co-adjutor, but have been encouraged to proceed by promises of effectual support, so that I shall not now draw back.

I am, Sir, your very faithful servant,
ANDREW HALLIDAY.

Hampton Court, 17th May 1832.

Dock-yards and Ship-building.

To the First Lord Commissioner of the Admiralty.

SIR,—It has long been considered an undeniable fact, that the foes of Great Britain should be met on the ocean, and that this not only holds good as to her individual existence, but is necessary to the preservation of an uninterrupted communication with her extensive colonies, and equally essential to the well-being of both. This fact alone will at all times render observations on naval matters worthy the attention of the British public, however trifling they in themselves may be; he, therefore, who awakens that attention, merits praise rather than condemnation; and it is under this impression the writer of the remarks that follow, addresses them to you, feeling that he cannot more appropriately introduce them to the British public, than through the functionary placed at the head of its maritime affairs.

It is rumoured, Sir, that a farther reduction is contemplated in the number of artificers employed at the different dock-yards. This is a subject of weighty importance, and I should be sorry that a too ardent desire for retrenchment, (necessary as it is,) should press too heavily upon that class, for Government, by retaining as many as it can, secures to itself, and provides subsistence to many useful and industrious men, who will otherwise be thrown on the community for assistance, or quit their native land for one that will reward their toil and talent; and where this is not the case, still the time spent in idleness from their being thrown out of one employ to their finding another, has a demoralizing tendency: it is, however, well known, that on former reductions, many of our artificers found their way from our dock-yards into those of the French, and were received with open arms; numbers went to the Canadas, and failing in procuring employment there, crossed to the United States. When I meditate on these facts, and see the healthy labourers, who in this rage for emigration are leaving us for ever, I am ready to exclaim with the poet—

"I see the rural virtues quit the land;"

while, with sorrow I add, the vices remain with the idle and dissolute. In the event of a war, our first object will be the manning of our fleet, and the greater extent to which we can effect this, without having recourse to the odious alternative of impressment, the more congenial will it be to public feeling. Could not a portion of the shipwrights be employed at the dock-yards, with the understanding that they are to embark as carpenter's crews? likewise armourers, armourer's mates, &c. Let them be classed, so that each class complete a line-of-battle-ship, frigate, corvette, and brig; the

three-deck ships having the forty-gun frigates apportioned to them, the two-deck ships the razées. Joiners and cabinet-makers should rarely be allowed, as much economy would accrue to the public service in substituting the more useful shipwright: indeed, much of the joiners' work at the dock-yard itself may be reduced, and a great saving of labour and material made, by fitting iron-bedsteads in small vessels, in lieu of the standing bedsteads fitted at present, which are frequently demolished ere the ship reaches a roadstead. Those of iron would require but a trifling alteration for the run of the different vessels, and do not harbour vermin.

Is not the employment of convicts in our arsenals, to the exclusion of the honest labourer, an evil of great magnitude? and is it not probable that the latter would engage to serve in the dock-yard, with the understanding that he may have to embark in case of war? The knowledge he will have gained, will render him more serviceable than the raw landsman. May we never again trespass on the pride of our seamen, or the feelings of our captains, by associating with them the sweepings of our jails!

How prone is man to run into extremes! How difficult for him to preserve *morally, politically,* or *religiously,* that just medium in which virtue and rectitude consist! In England how much is frequently sacrificed to securing popularity, either to the individual, or for a party! and I fear I see much of this in the reduction, falsely styled economy, that has been practised of late. It is not the breaking up of the Navy Board I quarrel with; but are we not launching into extravagance in another branch of naval expenditure? Are we not about to pay off ships, in order that we may expend thousands in experimental ship-building? if so, it is a gross error. There was doubtless a blameable reluctance some time since, to placing our ships in dimensions on an equality with those of foreigners: at last we followed their example: in this we did well, and I maintain we shall always do well, rather to follow than lead. Let us beware of indulging in, or creating a spirit of rivalry in ship-building, for it will not be a less expensive mania than that of palace-building, and the system of warfare on the lakes of Canada will substantiate this: rather keep the ships you have in commission, manned with officers and crews possessing practical knowledge, and by such means you will secure the possession of those belonging to your enemy. Again, it is only by keeping a number of seamen afloat, and attaching them to your service, that you can ever hope to grapple with the question of impressment. The extraordinary dimensions of the Vernon and several steamers that are building, announce to me that the ship-building mania has, or is about to seize us. The frigate, to please a sailor's eye, is symmetry itself, is the admiration of all, and does honour to the talent of the architect, Capt. Symonds, and the builder, Mr. Lang; but if ultimately she be found to require larger masts, yards, and sails, than the razées, and so establish another class of ship, she may be considered a failure. Again, she is within three hundred tons of the Thunderer, an eighty-four: which ship would have the advantage in action? In blowing weather, some will say, the frigate. It must be heavy weather, indeed, that would give that advantage, with the line-of-battle-ship's lower-deck ports nearly seven feet out of the water. Nor let it be forgotten, that the interchange of two or three broadsides from such antagonists lays the sea; the action of the Dogger-bank to wit; and I can instance an action between an English sixty-four, and a large French frigate on the coast of Ireland, in which the lower-decks of the former began to play after the second broadside, and the contest was no longer doubtful. That the Vernon will sail fast, hardly admits of a doubt; her form is in favour of it; neither will she be so heavily weighted with guns in proportion to her size, as the razées; and it has too frequently escaped us, that ships, like race-horses, should be weighted according to their capacity. May I ask before I quit this subject, whether the seventy-fours do not make excellent frigates? and what else can be done with them?

Brigs, it appears, are building of an increased tonnage, and this in contradiction to a received opinion, that two-masted vessels are ill calculated for battle, from the greater chance of their being crippled. Should we not do better to decrease the number of these vessels, keeping a few of the best of the eighteen-gun brigs? As they have always been overweighted, take away their long iron six-pounder chase guns, and give them brass six-pounders in lieu. Pantaloon, even with her lightness of armament and care of equipment, would not, I think, scud well; and this must be the case with all vessels that have not a sufficient bearing abaft.

In building steamers of 800 tons, we have been following the example of our Gallic friends. Two of 400 tons would have better answered the purpose, mounting two long guns each on a railway; by engaging end on, the vessel and paddles would be less exposed to the enemy's fire. The paddle-boxes could be protected by plates of iron, and the shot striking, in an angular direction, would glance off. They should move either ahead or astern, so as to avoid the necessity of winding; and should be fitted with Mr. Holdsworth's very clever* rudders. I cannot refrain from offering a remark on the equipment of the Britannia, now at Spithead; and this I am led to do, from the apparent opposed opinions of two distinguished admirals. Last summer, on the arrival of the commander-in-chief, the ships were ordered to bend their sprit-sails. We have now a one-hundred-and-twenty-gun ship bearing the flag, without even a sprit-sail yard. This does, I confess, seem to me a strange anomaly, and opposed to experience. I remember to have heard, that the disabled French ships, on the 1st of June, saved themselves by their sprit-sails: secondly, that in a partial action fought in the West Indies, in which our van suffered much, one ship lost her fore-top-sail yard; a hawser sent from the fore-top-mast head, replaced it with the sprit-sail yard; the sail was bent, and the ship thus enabled to preserve her position: and, thirdly, in a frigate action, the English ship was dismasted; her sprit-sail paid her off out of the trough of the sea, where, from her having less motion, the jury-masts were rigged with greater facility. Sprit-sail yards may be of such dimensions, as to answer the purpose of the main-top-sail, fore-top-sail, and cross-jack yards, adding greatly to the efficiency of a fleet at sea, or on foreign stations. Indeed, I can add from experience, that the sprit-sail yard across the night-heads in a small vessel, is a much greater support to the jib-boom than the whiskers, independent of the advantages already stated.

Ere I conclude, may I ask, without being considered captious, the reason for the late change in the uniform of the civilians of the navy, who are now to wear epaulettes? Is it because they do so in the land service that they should do so with us? Much as I admire the military profession, I must opine that there is no analogy between the services; and—

"Let each man to his station to keep life's ship in trim."

This last arrangement is but adding confusion to the confusion already created by the frock-coat. On the quarter-deck of a flag-ship, how are we to distinguish the different officers? Let us doff this military costume, for it ill becomes us; Sir James, make sailors of us again, and remind us of the best days of Britain's navy.

These remarks are presented with a disposition to be useful, and with the hope that some benefit may be derived from their passing in review of wiser heads than that of the individual who penned them, and has the honour to be,

Sir,

Your obedient humble servant,

May 20th, 1832. A Post Captain.

* Of this ingenious contrivance we shall give a description in an early Number. —Editor.

Russia and Poland.

Mr. Editor,—I am induced to offer a few remarks, suggested by the strictures on Russia, contained in the paper headed "Russia and British India," in your last Number.

Poland having endeavoured to re-establish herself as an independent kingdom, and having failed in that object, the liberals of Europe are calling on their respective governments to assume a firm attitude towards Russia, and to compel the Emperor to put in force the treaty of Vienna. As this letter would be extended far more than would be desirable for its object, if I were to enter into the minutiæ of argument concerning its right to be placed amongst the independent kingdoms, or how far other nations would be justified in demanding it, or interfering in the arrangements which the Emperor, its lawful Sovereign, may choose to make at this moment, I shall confine myself to taking a cursory view of the position in which Poland stood in 1830, previous to the revolution breaking out, and must then leave my readers to form their own conclusions on the merits or demerits of the case. The Emperor Alexander had granted to the Poles a free constitution and the liberty of the press, which no other part of the Russian dominions enjoyed; naturally, from this circumstance, it made the other Russian subjects jealous of the privileges the Poles had acquired, and not without some reason. That the constitution and the liberty of the press was not carried to the full extent first promised, I am not prepared to affirm; but that they were, so far as the safe government of the country could justify the Emperor, I am prepared to assert. He discovered that they were ready at any moment to take the first advantage of the least indulgence in the Government, and he very properly took such steps as might prevent so large a portion of his subjects from rising up against his authority. Can the Emperor be blamed then for taking such measures as might prevent what, unfortunately, has lately occurred? No; as the head of an immense and powerful empire, it was his duty, and a duty he owed to every country in the world, either by persuasion, or other more coercive measures, to restrain any part of his dominions from rising against his lawful government; and I will here remark, that the ideas lately entertained in France and England concerning the despotism of the Northern Autocrat, and the degradation of his subjects in submitting to it, are founded on the most false reasoning. Are whole kingdoms to be overturned, is civil war and bloodshed to ensue, because these two more enlightened kingdoms, as they are called, choose to entertain false and theoretic ideas concerning liberty? What a prostituted word! Alas! it has now become a term for all opposition to lawful and social government. It is a word in the mouth of every disappointed unprincipled man, whose boundless ambition can find no vent but in the dreadful crash of overturned monarchies.

Poland when annexed to Russia, by the treaty of Vienna, by the consent of the rest of the powers in Europe, was doubtless placed there with some restrictions, which, by the last revolution, she has entirely forfeited. The Emperor Nicholas, considering that when an independent kingdom, and when she had the opportunity of electing her Sovereign, from the nature of the election, it gave rise to every kind of dispute, frequently plunged the kingdom into a civil war between the two rival candidates, that her independence was sold for foreign protection: seeing all this, he wisely resolved to incorporate it entirely with the rest of Russia, take away the army of Poland, mix it with the Russians, and, finally, to rule that country with the same laws to which the rest of his dominions were, and always had been subject. Ireland is to England what Poland is to Russia. It is merely a question of time. And it is unjust, I will maintain, for persons living under the constitutions of France or England, to judge by the standard of those countries of the measures taken by a Sovereign who is absolute and irresponsible, and who, from the nature of his government, is positively compelled to take those steps

which appear so harsh and oppressive. The accounts which are daily published concerning the number of persons whose property has been confiscated, and the proprietors sent into Siberia as slaves, heavily chained, there to drag out a miserable existence, are as exaggerated as, in most cases, they are unfounded. One instance alone suffices to prove it: that the Polish nobleman who was sent as envoy to England from the Provisional Government, escapes confiscation,—a person who had taken an active and responsible part in the revolution. It has been remarked by a quarterly publication, "Is Russia above European law?" Certainly not, as far as justice and equity requires her to be ruled by it. If, as in the case of Belgium and Holland, the other powers, either from interested motives or from fear, should adopt a line of policy as dangerous in precedent as unjust in principle, then is Russia fully acquitted from any ambitious motives in differing with them, and withholding her consent; on the contrary, she has only shown that firmness and leaning towards a country, whose ruling family is endeared to her by the ties of relationship, and by the loyalty of the people, who have so gallantly, at an enormous sacrifice, rallied round and supported their Sovereign. Who is to define that principle of interference in the internal affairs of other countries? Upon what general grounds can that system be defended, by which five powers assemble and decide in conference the dominion of the weaker? Is there a country in Europe at this moment which, grounding my assertion on the principle thus laid down, is not liable to the same situation as the two countries which have so long occupied the attention of the conference? Will Europe purchase eternal peace by the ignominious sacrifices she has lately made on its altar? The arrangements may remain *pro tempore*, but it wants but one spark to light up the whole of this quarter of the globe.

I have so far deviated as above from the subject of Poland, to prove the dangerous precedent established in interference, as the liberals wish, in the arrangements made respecting Poland. The Poles are a brave nation, but the other parts of their character, I think, have been overrated. Upon the present occasion, I fear they have not altogether adhered to truth, and have caused the conduct of the Emperor to be represented in England and France, as atrocious and cruel in the extreme. I shall conclude by saying, that far be it from my intention to aid the cause of despotism and cruelty; but before deciding ultimately on a case of such importance as interfering with the internal affairs of another country, either by simply remonstrating, or by conference, it is necessary to view the conduct of the Sovereign in a calm and reasonable manner. The case of Poland has not been surveyed in a way that the importance of the case demands: the chivalrous feelings of some, the violent passions of others, a slight knowledge of the customs of Poland, have conspired in the minds of most persons to raise up the character of that nation to such a pitch, as may seem to render it worthy of a crusade. To such persons would I earnestly recommend impartial and deliberate consideration; bearing in mind, that the precedent they may now establish may recoil in full force on their respective countries; and that it is the duty of every honest minister to recommend to his master, measures of legal and social government the best suited to the character of the nation; and to carry it into effect is a duty the Sovereign owes to his God and country.

I am, Mr. Editor,

Your obedient servant,

May 7th. F.

Engineers of Steam-vessels.

Mr. Editor,—The present class of men on board steam-vessels who pass under this appellation, are mere engine-men, and not engineers.

The qualifications requisite to constitute an "engineer" are such as are

not at all likely to fall within the attainment of those persons now in charge of the engine-rooms of steam-vessels, who are, one and all, mere labourers, possessing some little mechanical knowledge, without any pretensions to scientific attainments. Under such management, the wondrous powers of steam are not likely to be elicited beyond what is already known; and, be the adoption late or early, it will ultimately be imperative that Government select men of education and scientific acquirements, and place them in His Majesty's steamers in the room of the present race of engine-men,—for steam is daily becoming a predominating power for the purposes of navigation: and when other nations adopt it, when our mercantile traffic is carried on by it, it is not possible that Government can do otherwise than extend it in the Royal Navy; and if it has been found expedient in regard to the sailing vessels, that the officers who are invested with the charge of stores, the masters, should have a rank in the service, it will likewise be expedient that so important a trust as devolves on the engineer, shall, in like manner, attach adequate rank to the office; and who can establish better claim to distinction than the man of liberal education? The present men, or rather class of men, must be retained, but a supervisor, or "engineer" added. To obtain the latter class, encouragement should be held out for such persons as can establish their claim for appointments, by a rigid examination before competent professors, in the arts and sciences, in mechanics, in drawing, &c. whereby to entitle them to an appointment; and on joining their vessels, to hold rank similar and equal to that of masters of the navy; and the subordinates, or engine-men, to be placed in the same class with quarter-masters and boatswain's mates, &c. For the education of such candidates for the superior office, Government need be at no expense, (unless, indeed, a "lecturer" be added to the Portsmouth establishment,) as young gentlemen will gladly avail themselves of such an opening to establish themselves in a profession, and study for that very purpose; and the professor or lecturer, proposed above, may be made the examiner of candidates, in presence of the commissioner of the dock-yard and head-master of the Royal Academy.

At the present moment, constituted as the engineer department is, not only we the commanding officers, but the Government also, are absolutely the dependents on ignorance and arrogance; for such men as have the appointments, illiterate themselves, but possessing some little insight as to the management of the engines, and seeing that we know less, if any thing at all, about them, assume an importance which, combined with ignorance, creates disgust; whereas, the class proposed, if established, would cause these men to fall to their proper level, and render them truly serviceable. It is vain to say, "Change them till you suit yourself," for what has been, and still is, our practice? An engineer, if removed from one vessel, is sure to be placed in another; scarce one finally discharged; and what does this argue, but that competent men are not to be had in numbers sufficient to render us independent of the services of those who, for various reasons, may not be approved of?

But in regard to the superior class as proposed, if it be conjectured that "expense" will be incurred by introducing such officers into the service, let it not be forgotten that the engines of steam-vessels are themselves vastly expensive, averaging, at the first cost, from seven to twelve thousand pounds, and the subsequent repairs, under the present management, stand in, at least, two hundred pounds a year each vessel; but under the superintendence of the proposed officers, these valuable machines will be kept in the most efficient condition by constant attention, and the judicious remedying of any little defect which the straining of the vessel may from time to time occasion, and thereby prevent any heavy repairs being required. Beyond a doubt, they would thus be made to last for a period considerably longer than heretofore; and independent of the serious cost for repairs as now incurred, which would be saved, the vessels would be left in a state of

readiness for service. Under such supervision, moreover, the country would be further benefited, in that those officers would be an effectual check on the chimerical projects and schemes of visionary theorists, as all plans relative to improvements in machinery, &c. might be laid before a committee of such officers prior to adoption into the public service; so that, viewed in any light, ultimate economy, and not expense, must result.

I have the honour to be, Mr. Editor,
Your obedient servant,
ROBERT OTWAY, Lieut. R.N.
Commanding H. M. Steam-vessel Echo.

Woolwich, 19th May 1832.

Recruits for the East India Company.

MR. EDITOR,—As your valuable publication has already been of the utmost service in the correction of abuses in the naval and military departments, by the publicity given to the same, I venture to address you on a subject of considerable importance to those men enlisted in England by the East India Company for their service, and more particularly the Bengal Artillery. There are four recruiting stations, viz. London, Liverpool, Dublin, and Cork, from each of which the recruiting officer is allowed to send ten men per mensem to the Company's Depôt in Bromptom Barracks, Chatham. On their arrival at this place they are compulsorily furnished, out of the amount of 2*l.* 10*s.* balance of bounty due to them, with several articles which they are informed it is necessary they should possess in India; amongst these are a knapsack, canteen, and straps, charged at 15*s.* 4*d.* which we heard to our astonishment on our arrival in India were perfectly useless. I would suggest, that instead of this article recruits should be furnished for the same money with a good strong box, which would not only be more serviceable to them while in the depôt, but be of infinite utility during their passage to India, and ultimately a valuable article when there.

I would also draw your attention to the great difference experienced by recruits draughted to India in Company's own ships, and those transported in chartered vessels or free traders. Though a victualling list, ordering one gill of rum per diem, with eight pints of water, with the other provisions, was handed to the officer commanding a detachment of 150 men, of whom I was one, in the Thomas Grenville, we had but one drachm of rum and seven pints of water: we were also deprived of the lime juice and a portion of the sugar ordered for us, articles which were punctually served out to two detachments that shortly after followed us in the Oriental and the Northumberland.

You are, no doubt, aware that, contrary to the general practice of His Majesty's forces, troops in the Company's service are clothed but once in two years. Trusting that these subjects, affecting, it is true, the most humble but at the same time the most numerous class of military men, will meet with attention, I beg to subscribe myself, Sir,

Your very obedient servant,
H. C.

Dum Dum, near Calcutta,
26th Nov. 1831.

P.S. It would be highly desirable to define the bounds of Courts of Enquiry held for the trial of offending recruits proceeding to India, or to ascertain whether such courts may be held at all, as the provision on that head, the act relating to the Company's troops, is not very clear.

Actual expenses of the last year's Naval Promotion.

Mr. Editor,—An account of the Naval Promotions during the last year having lately been laid before the House of Commons, without setting off therefrom the deaths that had occurred during the same year; the House and public in general have, no doubt, been led into a belief that the half-pay list of the navy has been increased: which idea being not only erroneous but injurious to the profession, I have, for the benefit of your readers, (if you will allow my humble exertions the consideration of a place in your widely-circulated Journal) compared the first list published after the present Board of Admiralty was formed, with that just issued to the public, and find the following reductions:—

		Half-pay. £.	s.	d.
7	Admirals	5365	10	0
4	Vice-Admirals	2372	10	0
5	Rear-Admirals	2281	5	0
4	Retired Captains	1058	10	0
13	Captains	2491	2	6
23	Commanders	3567	17	6
88	Lieutenants, including those retired with Commander's rank on Lieutenant's half-pay	8030	0	0
11	Masters	1003	15	0
7	Retired Surgeons	1341	7	6
12	Surgeons for Service	1095	0	0
1	Purser	54	15	0
18	Assistant-Surgeons	657	0	0
	Total	£29,318	12	6

Thus, instead of an increase, we find, from the 1st of January 1831 to the 1st of April 1832, a reduction of upwards of twenty-nine thousand pounds has taken place in the annual half-pay of the navy. I cannot conclude this, Mr. Editor, without advocating an increase to the list of Pursers, from motives of *economy*, as well as a reward for the long services of that deserving yet neglected class of officers the senior clerks. As no doubt, Mr. Editor, you are surprised at the novelty of proposing a promotion under the plea of *economy*, an explanation is looked for, and the following will, I hope, prove a satisfactory one.

Promote 50 clerks, who have the greatest claims from *servitude and character:* their half-pay as Pursers would amount to £2737 10*s*. 0*d*.

Full-pay of 50 Clerks, taking the mean of rated ships carrying Admiralty clerks	2683	15	0
Victualling 50 clerks at 25*l*. 10*s*. each per annum	1275	0	0
Total cost to Government of 50 Admiralty clerks	3958	15	0
A saving of	£1221	5	0

Aware that the loss of these officers' services afloat will be argued against my proposition, I appeal to any officers who have served since Admiralty clerks have been allowed to our post ships, if their services are at all requisite, except in line-of-battle ships, where, instead of two or three, one and no more can be employed; and it is a known fact, they are appointed not for any duty they are expected to perform, but as a provision for old and faithful servants of the Crown, whom it would be too glaring an act of injustice to turn entirely adrift. But how much more becoming, and far more acceptable a provision, would be that promotion so justly their due! I am, Sir,

Your constant reader and admirer,

April 9th 1832. A Tar.

Colonel Leslie Grove Jones.

MR. EDITOR,—It is always most gratifying to read of the glorious deeds in arms of the heroes of ancient and modern times. The exploits of the former are recorded by the historian, but in a few of the latter cases, our debt of gratitude is due to the illustrious individuals themselves.

In the report given of a late Radical meeting of the Paddingtonians, the following pithy observations are stated to have been made by Mr. Leslie Grove Jones, who, it thence appears, was once a distinguished officer of the British army. Why is he no longer so? Under what circumstances did he quit the army?

"He had heard also of troops marching * * * * *. If, therefore, his information was correct, this was a declaration of war against the people. Let the people, then, be prepared for war. He would tell them what was requisite: first, sobriety; secondly, obedience to those whom they selected as leaders. Let only some of them determine to die, and away would go all the soldiers. (Bravo.) He would tell them that if the whole brigade of household cavalry came, they had only to stand firm and lock their arms together, and no cavalry man could come near them. If the artillery were brought against them, he would place himself at their head, and show them how to take every great gun. (Cheers.) He had been at the head of some of the most desperate attacks during the late war, and he now declared that, if a necessity arose, he would again lead on his countrymen to glory in a cause that he felt he would be more pleased with than any in which he was ever before engaged." (Immense cheering.)

Allow me to request from some of the former companions in arms of this distinguished soldier, from some who still have fresh in their recollection the bold and gallant bearing of their victorious leader "to desperate attacks," a record of Mr. Jones's brilliant deeds. I implore them in justice to Mr. Jones, as well as to the service at large and to future ages, not to allow the record of these bright achievements to rest on Mr. Jones's *ipse dixit* alone, but through the medium of your Journal explain when and where these wondrous deeds were executed; how they were at the time acknowledged by Mr. Jones's commanding officers; and further, why the army is deprived of the valuable services of so illustrious a conqueror and patriot? a Cincinnatus who, in the exigency of his forsaken country, volunteers to lead the mobs of London to capture "every great gun."

BERGEN-OP-ZOOM.

St. James's, 16th May 1832.

*** We doubt whether the Sayings and Doings of this martial personage, who, it appears, would still "seek the bubble reputation e'en at the cannon's mouth," hold as large a place in the public attention and esteem as his own blinding vanity seduces him to fancy; yet as he takes so public and prominent a lead in the abuse of and hostility to that Service which rejects his fellowship, past or present, with scorn and with shame, we hold ourselves ready to do him justice, in conformity with the challenge of our Correspondent. Communications on the subject must, however, be confined to facts, and duly authenticated *to us*.—ED.

Royal Engineers and Sappers.

MR. EDITOR,—On perusing the dialogue on gratuitous education, between the Prussian General Gneisenau and a British officer, which I got a sight of a few days ago, I am enabled to account for many circumstances connected with the corps of Royal Engineers, which before were to me quite anomalous. I could not by any stretch of imagination even conjecture the cause, why the greater number of engineers whom I have met with in my various peregrinations, are so very defective in a knowledge of general literature, and, in many cases, of mathematics. The cause is now quite clear. From general learning the cadets are almost totally excluded by the nature of the course of acade-

mical instruction; and as there are probably not more than one in ten of any number of youths, taken indiscriminately, who will either have a genius or an inclination for prosecuting the dry and abstruse science of mathematics, it cannot, therefore, be expected that many eminent mathematicians can be produced by such a system; nor need it be wondered at, that when a youth, who could just procure as much of the needful as to supply himself with some cakes and sugar-stick at Gravesend, finds himself all at once *plus* (in many cases) a higher rate of pay than a lieutenant-colonel in the army, and *minus* every species of restraint, he should discard all remembrance of these terms, as applicable to the uncongenial studies of his youth. Having obtained a gratuitous commission in the corps of Royal Engineers, in which he must rise, though composed of the most gravitating materials, to the highest rank in the corps, without any effort on his part; he either prosecutes some congenial study, or, what is more generally the case, dwindles into a mere lounger or hanger-on—who

> "Soundly sleeps the night away,
> And just does nothing all the day."

The facility which the extensive resources of the department afford for an engineer to perform his duty by proxy, almost unavoidably creates a number of high-crested drones, who consider that they render essential service to their country by being graciously pleased to accept of their pay, and to make a few dashes, by way of signature, with their "grey goose quill."

But lest the remarks of an "unwashed artificer" should offend "ears polite," I will at once point out a very serious evil, out of many, which results to the service, from thus fixing the destiny of young men to a scientific branch of the service before their genius or inclinations are developed. I have served nearly twenty years in the corps of Royal Sappers and Miners (officered by the Royal Engineers), during which period I have rung nearly all the changes of which the corps in its multifarious capacities is capable, and have met with such a variety of vicissitude as is quite incredible, considering that I was during all that time in the same corps. The evil to which I allude, is the strong predilection which many of the officers of the Engineers evince for military tactics, to the prejudice of the other and more essential duties of the corps; and the eternal torment to which the sappers are subjected from the frequent change of officers, in consequence of the variety of conflicting opinions which these *savants* entertain on the most trifling commonplace subjects.

Take for example the survey of Ireland, deservedly considered a work of great national importance, and to which that distracted country looks with impatience for the amelioration of their real or imaginary grievances. The scientific gentleman placed at the head of that important operation, and upon whom the whole weight of the responsibility rests, has been amply provided with the means of carrying on the various branches of this extensive operation, in the most economical, efficient, and creditable manner. Three companies have been raised, and instructed expressly for carrying on the survey of Ireland; but, unfortunately, some of the captains placed in command of these companies (one peculiarly so), and many of their subordinate officers, are so affected with the military mania, as almost totally to neutralize every effort of the person placed in chief command to carry on with energy the operation for which those companies have been called into existence; thus entirely frustrating the intentions of the Legislature, betraying the hopes of the country, and fixing an indelible stigma upon the scientific reputation of the Ordnance Department; and all this keeping up of discipline, as it is termed, is upon the childish supposition that some of the present generation of surveyors may outlive the operation, and be required to go on foreign service. Nothing can be more preposterously absurd; for, judging of the future by the past, he must be a very Methusalem who will live to see this job brought to a close.

The Sabbath-day, to which almost every class of working people look for-

ward as a day of rest, is peculiarly at the disposal of the officers of the several parties of surveyors, and those upon whose pericraniums the military bump is very prominent, make ample amends for any restraint which they may be under on the other six days of the week; consequently, it is a day which is looked forward to with anything but feelings of pleasure by this unfortunate, hard-worked class of beings. There is no corps in the service which is more in need of being re-modeled than the corps of Engineers and Sappers.

I remain yours faithfully,

A Sapper.

The late Capt. James Williams, R.N.

Mr. Editor,—I have just read in the United Service Journal of this month, a Memoir of the Services of the late Admiral of the Fleet, William Peere Williams Freeman.

Page 494, in part of the memoir is written—

"Capt. Williams' next appointment was to the Prince George, 98, with the fleet under the orders of Sir Samuel Hood, on the Leeward Island station; and he was in several engagements off St. Kitt's, with Compte de Grasse, on the 25th, 26th, and 27th Jan. 1782, the Prince George being one of the ships that formed the van division. In March following, the fleet arrived at Antigua, and after taking in refreshments, sailed thence to join that under the command of Admiral Sir George Brydges Rodney. In the memorable engagement which took place on the 12th of April, the Prince George formed one of the blue division, and bore a conspicuous part in the action, in which Capt. Williams had ten men killed and twenty-four wounded."

That part of Admiral Freeman's service I think you will find is an error, I mean with respect to the ship he commanded, as my father, Capt. "*James* Williams," was appointed to the Prince George, commanded by Admiral Digby, and was in the West Indies, and in all those engagements in that part of the memoir alluded to. The Prince George in the action of the 12th of April 1782, was greatly disabled by the loss of one of her masts, and was taken in tow after the action by the Triton frigate.

Capt. James Williams was also in the Prince George previous to that period, and in the action off Cape St. Vincent the 16th Jan. 1780, between the English fleet, commanded by Sir George Rodney, and the Spanish fleet commanded by Don Juan de Langara; in that action the Spanish man-of-war, St. Julian, struck to His Majesty's ship Prince George. Capt. James Williams was sent on board of the St. Julian, and in consequence of her disabled condition, and tempestuous weather, she was wrecked on the Bar at Port St. Mary's; there were at the time upwards of 500 Spaniards and not 70 English on board; all the lives were saved, and the English were exchanged and sent to Gibraltar, from whence Capt. James Williams sailed on the 24th March 1780, in the Alert cutter for England, to rejoin the Prince George. He had also the honour of being Captain in the Prince George when His present Majesty joined her on his first going into the Navy.

It is not my wish to take from or depreciate the value of Admiral Freeman's service, but to give "honour to whom honour" is due; and I have only to regret that I have it not in my power to give a lengthened account of my father's long and arduous services in the navy. He died in April 1792, when the writer was but four years of age, and all his papers and documents have been lost or destroyed. I shall feel obliged to you to correct the error I have pointed out.

I am, Sir, your obedient humble servant,

James Williams,
Capt. H.P. 11th Foot.

4, Newport Terrace, Barnstaple,
23rd April 1832.

Cavalry Affair, 6th June 1811.

Mr. Editor,—The impartiality which led me to address you in the month of February last, again obliges me to notice the continued report of "The British Cavalry on the Peninsula," which appears in your last Number.

I by no means question the authenticity of the report, which is generally correct, but consider it rather invidious to single out *one*, where *all* behaved with equal bravery; and which an "officer of dragoons" has done in his representation of the affair near Gallegos, of the 6th June 1811.

That Capt. Purvis distinguished himself, I am fully convinced; but I am prepared to prove that other officers in the same brigade were equally distinguished, and for that purpose beg to subjoin an extract from a letter of Sir Brent Spencer to the Marquis of Wellington, as well as the following note of that affair from my Journal made at the time:

"Gen. Slade's brigade was at this time cantoned in the villages from Villa de Cerva to Guinaldo, a distance of twenty miles, and it was with difficulty the Royals, and one troop of the 14th Light Dragoons, amounting in the whole to about four hundred sabres, could be got together in time to check the velocity with which the enemy came on.

"The enemy advanced from Ciudad Rodrigo about five A.M. with 2200 cavalry, and ten pieces of artillery, under the command of Montbrun. The light division, under Gen. Craufurd, moved off about one o'clock A.M. so that by the time the French appeared, they had got to Alfayates, a distance of full five leagues. This was the nearest support the brigade engaged had, whilst it was under the necessity of remaining longer than was prudent in face of so superior a force, the Major-General commanding having received positive orders, if possible, to save the baggage, and which was effected, without the loss of a single mule, though never removed from the enemy during the engagement further than 300 yards."

Fearful I have too long intruded on your valuable Journal, I hasten to transcribe the extract of Sir Brent Spencer's letter to which I have already alluded, and which was published in the Gazette.

"Soita, 7th June 1811.

"My Lord,— * * * * It is with great pleasure I have to mention the very admirable conduct of the Royals, under the command of Lieut.-Colonel Clifton, and one troop of the 14th Light Dragoons, which being all that were employed in covering the front from Villa de Egua to Espeja, were assembled at Gallegos, and retreated from thence agreeably to my directions.

"The force which they were opposed to, your Lordship is in possession of in this letter; and notwithstanding all the efforts of Gen. Montbrun, who commanded the French cavalry, to outflank the British, pressing them at the same time in front with eight pieces of cannon, their retiring to Nave d'Aver merits the highest admiration.

"In offering my sense of their conduct, and of the very stubborn manner in which they retired, I derive very great satisfaction in acquainting your Lordship, that Major-Gen. Slade directed in person the whole of the affair, and by his movements foiled the designs of the enemy; and the British cavalry maintained, as usual, their high character. The Major-General in his report to me speaks in much praise of Major Dorville, of the Royal Dragoons; of Capt. Purvis, of the same regiment; and of Capt. Dawson, of the 14th Light Dragoons; who had opportunities of distinguishing themselves much. * * * *
The loss of the cavalry upon this occasion, I am happy to say, amounted to no more than ten rank and file wounded, and nine missing; and six horses killed, ten wounded, and four missing. "I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) "B. Spencer, Lieut.-Gen."

I have now only to repeat my assurances that I have no other view than justice in bringing forward these minute particulars, and I feel confident that I have asserted nothing that will impugn my right to subscribe myself,

An impartial Reporter of the deeds of the British Cavalry on the Peninsula.

April 23rd, 1832.

ARMS AND ARTS.

Of those who contrast the present state of Europe with what it was four centuries ago, who call to mind the time when education, now the property of the multitude, was confined to colleges or monasteries, and who delight in computing how largely the discoveries of modern genius and the results of modern skill and ingenuity have added to the comforts and happiness of society—of these reflecting minds there are, we apprehend, not a few, who forget that, among the originating causes of so strongly-marked an improvement in all *the arts of peace*, one is found in intimate, and as it may appear to some, in anomalous connexion with *the art of war*. The fact, indeed, cannot have escaped notice, that about the same period that the states of Europe, generally, made for the first time the military *a permanent and distinct profession*, the dawn of that light appeared, which has since continued with still increasing lustre to guide and encourage the spirit of discovery, whether in religion, or science, or the arts. But those who attach any faith to the dogmas of political wisdom, put forth with confidence enough, certainly, by a mercenary ephemeral press, may be inclined to consider the profession of a soldier so totally unproductive of advantage to the community, as to be slow in perceiving a connexion between the establishment of the first standing army by Charles VII. of France, about the middle of the fifteenth century, and the subsequent reformation in religion or revolution in philosophy, of which so much of the success is to be ascribed to a Luther or a Bacon. It is nevertheless not more true, that the innovation of the French monarch preceded, than that it was highly instrumental in introducing, the era of modern improvement. Its general adoption by European governments was soon attended with a result most favourable to the progress of knowledge and civilization.

It need not be remarked at how slow a pace society must advance, where life is held on a very uncertain tenure. Where person and property are but feebly protected, provision for the present moment becomes the predominant concern, and men have little inclination to indulge in those enlarged and prospective views, which may extend the boundaries of science or art, but can anticipate a successful consummation only after a long period of industrious application. There have been cases, indeed, where the ardour of genius has overpowered all fears of personal danger, but every people do not possess in every age an Archimedes, and even the presence of one or two such superior minds could do little towards effecting a general improvement in the condition of a community, with the great bulk of whom the noblest kinds of enterprise and exertion are totally suspended in the season of tumult and insecurity.

Previous to the establishment of permanent armies in the states of Europe, the feudal barons had succeeded in investing themselves with such a degree of power as enabled them often to beard the sovereign with impunity and set the laws at defiance. In their castles and their armed retainers they possessed the instruments of war, nor were they slow in appealing to the sword, whether for the decision of mutual differences, or of disputes with their superior lord. In consequence,

it was not unusual to see a kingdom, both at peace with its neighbours, and free from the contests of rivals for the throne, suffer all the horrors of war. But no sooner had monarchs provided themselves with a force under their immediate control, and exempt from all baronial influence, than the proud and turbulent nobles were compelled to relinquish their usurped independence, so fatal to peace and order, and the dominion of law, now become supreme, diffused a tranquillising influence through all parts of the community.

The new system operated favourably for the stability of society in another respect. The executive, having now at its disposal a body of disciplined troops, whose services were at all times available, and being no longer confined to an ill-trained militia, who could not be made to serve beyond a limited period, became more effective in all foreign operations—it could strike a more decisive blow and be felt at a greater distance. The movements of any power thus afforded matter for important consideration to all within the reach of its influence, in the conduct of each European government an increased interest was felt by the rest, and ultimately there ensued between the several states a connexion, binding them into one vast community, no part of which is permitted to promote its own peculiar views at the expense of another, without incurring the risk of a confederate hostility, which it can have little hope of being able to overcome. In short, the great principle of modern international policy, the balance of power, now for the first time became an object of attention to European statesmen.

Thus by the introduction of standing armies, people were relieved from the perpetual apprehension either of internal anarchy or foreign hostility. The active mind of man had now free scope for the developement of its energies—genius was at liberty to launch forth into the field of discovery, and humbler, though not less valuable, industry was prepared to give effect to her grandest projects. It has often been remarked, how much of that portion of civilization which Russia enjoys, is to be ascribed to Peter the Great's formation of an army, but it holds equally true with regard to every people in Europe, that a similar measure was the means of terminating feudal barbarism, and was one source at least of that stream, which has spread the tide of knowledge so widely over this portion of the globe.

But, it may be asked, where is the necessity for a permanent military establishment in countries in which the age of intelligence and refinement has long ago commenced? Allowing it to be a successful instrument in the work of civilising an ignorant and unpolished nation, and approving therefore of its adoption in a country like Turkey, or its continued use in semi-barbarous Russia, why burden in the present day the people of enlightened England or France with the expense of its support? In reply, we refer to what we have already stated as a consequence of the governments of Europe concurring to keep a small proportion of their respective subjects in a constant state of preparation for war. In truth, that now hacknied phrase, *the balance of power*, had previously no place in the nomenclature of European policy. In the present times, which regard every thing antiquated with so much contempt, the expression may be somewhat out of fashion. Yet still we are sure that on the preservation of that equilibrium between different powers, to which it was originally applied by

the statesmen of other days, depends the main security of Europe against that all-grasping ambition, which, but for the impediments thrown in its way by this very system, would have exhibited itself under many a character besides that of a Louis the Fourteenth, or a Napoleon in the eyes of modern Europe. But, say our opponents, can this system be upheld by no other means than those by which it was brought into existence? Have we not a new and omnipotent instrument? Is not knowledge essentially power? May not, then, the intellectual and intelligent nations of Europe, at least, disband their armies, and confide in the moral force of public opinion to render powerless all the exertions of mere physical strength, which may aim at extending despotic dominion and obstructing the progress of liberty? Our answer shall be a reference to a period of Grecian history, the events of which have been transmitted to us most minutely, and supply an instructive lesson on the very point under consideration.

When Philip got possession of the throne of Macedon, the Greeks, in particular the Athenians, had reached almost the summit of excellence in philosophy, in the arts, in literature. From their height of civilization, they looked down with contempt on their barbarian neighbours—so they called the people of Macedonia. Their love of liberty had suffered no abatement since the days when the three hundred Spartans at Thermopylæ offered their lives a voluntary sacrifice on the altar of freedom, or when the devotion and bravery of ten thousand Athenians made "Marathon a magic word." They took a lively interest in public affairs, and were well informed as to the course of political events; but, though they could not be ignorant that every day brought fresh accessions to the power and resources of Philip, they would never permit themselves to doubt the issue of a conflict, in which his half-civilized subjects should be arrayed against the intelligence and patriotism of confederate Greece. Even the great Athenian orator seems to have thought the field already won, could he once succeed in bringing the energy, which is produced by the spirit of rational liberty, into collision with the mere physical force of a despot. He was borne away by the contemplation of the glorious events of the previous age, when the invading hosts of the Persian monarch were baffled and defeated by a handful of men, whom an ardent love of their country, directed by superior genius, made irresistible. He overlooked the effects of that discipline which had been introduced among the Macedonian troops, and distinguished them so widely from the ill-trained armies of Darius or Xerxes. It was only in the disastrous action of Cheronæa, that Demosthenes was convinced of the value of that military education, by which Philip, out of the rude materials of an unpolished and illiterate population, constructed an engine of sufficient power to overcome all the resistance opposed by the union of valour, patriotism, and high intellectual eminence with superiority of numbers. The organization of the Macedonian phalanx, the work of a few years, proved more than a counterpoise to the influence of that spirit of liberty which had acquired the strength and maturity of ages; and an instrument, which owed its power to the improvements of Philip, in one day demolished a fabric, to the formation of which the genius and energy of the legislators, and statesmen, and orators of Greece, had been devoted for centuries.

From the defeat at Cheronæa, Greece never recovered herself; she never again regained the proud attitude of an independent nation. Her resources thenceforth lay at the disposal of a foreign power, and she was compelled to follow in the wake of a nation infinitely below her in the scale of intellect, and superior only in the single art of war. Even in the invasion of Persia she bore but a subordinate part, and the chief place of glory and honour, which in former days had been the object of such keen contention between Athens, and Sparta, and Thebes, was at this period quietly conceded to the military pre-eminence of Macedon.

The circumstances connected with this revolution in Greece, furnish a criterion for ascertaining the value of some of the verbiage that now occupies the pages of magazines, or the columns of newspapers. The lucubrations to which we here refer, and have already made indirect allusion, are those which affect to behold the period as at no great distance, when the wide diffusion of intelligence and information will render unnecessary the maintenance of institutions, which have been hitherto considered essential to the security of states. Along with other establishments which will then be found equally useless, standing armies will fall to the ground; they will be discovered to be quite superfluous, productive neither of tranquillity, nor strength, nor stability to a nation. An "enlightened people" will be sufficiently secured against internal discord or hostility from without, *by the moral force of national feeling*. Now, as we have no wish to destroy the plausibility of a fanciful theory, we abstain from the exercise of our right to require those who speak in this strain to reduce their vague generalities to some palpable form; we do not even ask them whether they have themselves any definite conception of the *mode* in which their *immaterial agent* is to exert its powers. But we are sorry we cannot extend our complaisance farther: truth compels us to state, that the voice of history pronounces their schemes, however admirably adapted to the land of Utopia, totally inapplicable to such a world as ours. Unfortunately for the practical value of their speculations, the fact stands recorded, that a country which gloried in her free and popular forms of government, whose institutions were fitted to nourish the spirit of liberty, and create a union of feeling and sentiment on every subject connected with the national independence, was, at the very time when she was eminently the seat of the sciences and arts, brought under subjection by a people, certainly not possessed of superior natural resources, who had tasted little of the sweets of liberty, who had made but small progress in the path of knowledge and civilization, and who, indeed, derived their superiority merely from the military institutions introduced by the reigning monarch.

How then did it happen, that in the case of Greece knowledge *was not* power? Have we here detected unsoundness or fallacy in one of the aphorisms of the great founder of modern philosophy? When Bacon announced that "human knowledge and human power amount to the same thing," did he in this instance overlook that experience which he first proposed as the grand test of truth? No; it is only when his words are misinterpreted, when they are used in a sense evidently different from that which the writer intended, that we shall

find any contrariety between them and the facts of history, or the results of experience.

The expression of Lord Bacon, which certain modern *illuminati* are so fond of quoting, but with a meaning of their own, was designed by him simply to convey the idea, that, as with the help of instruments we can easily accomplish that which would be otherwise impossible for us, and *an acquaintance with the laws of nature* often enables us to make them subservient to our purposes, every acquisition of such knowledge, whereby we obtain a new instrument, is, in reality, an addition to our power. His words have been verified in many a thousand cases, wherever mechanical science has been cultivated and reduced to practice, but nowhere so signally as in the land which gave him birth. How would it have rejoiced his spirit, could he have had a prophetic intimation of the amount of that power which England was to derive from machinery, or could he have foreseen how vastly her means would be multiplied by a knowledge merely of the properties of steam! We do not, however, deny the propriety of the application of Bacon's principle to other subjects besides those connected with physical science. It is not more true that every accession to man's knowledge of nature increases his power over her, than that his ability to accomplish an object, even of a moral or political kind, is commensurate with the extent of his information as to the proper means of effecting it. In *every* art the use of peculiar instruments is the true source of its value, and the more our knowledge of them is enlarged, our operations will reach to objects of greater magnitude. The ability of the statesman, for instance, will be proportionate to the accuracy of his acquaintance with that vast and complicated machinery which secures to a people the advantages of good government, when directed by a skilful hand. But as it was Bacon's grand object to show that all true physical science must be founded on observation of the actual operations of nature, so it most certainly was his opinion, that all valuable political science must be deduced from a survey of the records of history. In both he would undoubtedly have said, experience is the only safe standard, and can alone supply a knowledge of the instruments which enlarge the sphere of human power, either in the natural or moral world.

The subjugation of Greece by Macedonia, is no exception to the proposition of Bacon, unless we understand him to have said, that the possession of a high degree of *multifarious* knowledge is always accompanied with a corresponding capacity for successful enterprise. That the illustrious philosopher never could have meant this, we are justified in saying, on the ground of his intimate acquaintance with history, and knowledge of human nature. How many instances to the contrary does not even our own experience suggest? In point of mental cultivation and extent of general information, the manufacturers of Great Britain are, perhaps, far exceeded by their competitors in France, but they have displayed proofs of an ability greatly superior, simply because their information, though principally confined to matters immediately connected with their respective occupations, is on all such subjects unrivalled. It is precisely for a similar reason that when Greece and Macedonia committed themselves to the trial of compara-

tive strength, the inferiority of the former was established so decidedly, as to forbid the hope of her ever again becoming a match for her conqueror. Greece with all her acquisitions in science, her cultivation of the arts, and her devotion to the pursuits of literature, was, at that time, far below her competitor in that species of knowledge which, above any other, perhaps, is essential to the attainment or preservation of national power—a knowledge of the military art. Even from the knowledge which they did possess on this subject, and which, though deficient in the improvements which the genius of Philip had effected, was yet superior to that of most other nations, they did not derive much practical benefit. The harangues of the Athenian orator reproach his countrymen with their supineness, negligence, and want of preparation against the enemy, and depict in fearful colours the sad consequences which afterwards followed; for not only may a high state of intellectual cultivation among a people co-exist with national weakness, but even a theoretical acquaintance with those arts, whose object it is to add efficacy and energy to the national acts, will be of no value without the actual employment of the instruments, the proper use of which is learned from the rules of art.

To some of our readers, we may at this moment appear in the light of one, attempting to find a demonstration for a mathematical axiom. When, however, we see an expression, to which Bacon's name has given currency, more remarkable for its boldness than accuracy, receiving an interpretation at variance with the meaning of its author, and find this erroneous interpretation made the groundwork for a series of attacks on institutions, with the maintenance of which, we are supported by the authority of Bacon himself,* as well as the evidence of universal history, in asserting, that the greatness of England is inseparably connected, we think it due to his reputation to show, that he is perfectly innocent of all participation in speculations whose absurdity would place them beneath notice, but for the injurious effect they might have in misleading public opinion. We have taken, therefore, perhaps needless pains to explain that knowledge is power only so far as it is the knowledge of those very instruments which are fitted for accomplishing our special object; and as it has been reduced to practice by the actual use of them. So far from *general* information being of itself a means of success in every undertaking—being, in fact, of itself an universal instrument of power, as some appear to think, it is possible that no advantage may be derived *even from the theory of the art*, a practical acquaintance with which would have furnished helps, that would have added tenfold force to our exertions.

If we have now been trying to make it evident that the intellectual attainments of a people may add little to the national strength—

* "But it is so plain, that every man profiteth in that he most intendeth, that it needeth not to be stood upon; it is enough to point at it, that no nation which doth not directly profess arms, may look to have greatness fall into their mouths, and on the other side it is a most certain oracle of time, that those states that continue long in that profession (as the Romans and Turks principally have done) do wonders; and those that have professed arms but for an age, have notwithstanding commonly attained that greatness in that age which maintained them long after, when their profession and exercise of arms hath grown to decay."—*Bacon's Essays*. Of the true greatness of kingdoms and estates.

if we have directed attention to a contest between two nations, in which the party that far excelled in the acquisitions of knowledge and the refinements of taste sank irrecoverably beneath the superior force of an antagonist, that did not originally possess an equal share of the resources, which may be made the elements of power, and had the advantage only in point of military capacity—it is not that we undervalue the beneficial influence of general science and literature in strengthening the faculties and refining the feelings of the mind, in multiplying as well as purifying the sources of human enjoyment, and in giving man a higher elevation in the scale of existence; but it is, because we wish that these blessings should be made permanent and secure to the people of England, and that we, of these kingdoms, who already enjoy them in a high degree, may have them in a still higher. It is for this reason that we would not give any countenance to a delusion, which, by impressing the public mind with an idea that the support of an army is not necessary for the preservation of our independence and power, might lead the way to a rapid descent from our present lofty position among civilized nations. We do not here contemplate merely the loss of our colonial empire as a consequence of our not maintaining a regular military force, but we carry our view on to the possibility of an event, which in our very last great war was among the objects, that occupied much of our anxiety, and against which the nation thought it necessary to make instant and direct provision. Was not Napoleon deterred from attempting the execution of his threats of an invasion of Britain, chiefly, by that noble display of military preparation, which told him that his arrival on our shores, even could he accomplish so much, would be the commencement of a struggle in a hostile country, where his forces would have the advantage neither in numbers, nor discipline, nor courage? Had not our countrymen on that occasion answered the call to arms so promptly and unanimously, might not the same man, who humbled Vienna, and Berlin, and Madrid, have made the capital of England too, stoop to his dominion, even "despite our watery wall?" And who could have removed the yoke, which in such an event would have subjected all Europe? And, need we ask, whether such a state of political bondage is favourable to the developement of genius or the expansion of the human mind? In Greece, the effects of the Macedonian conquest were soon visible in the decline of the national literature and the degeneracy of the national character. Under the Roman yoke, indeed, she still continued the school for the sciences and arts, yet was it by the immortal productions of the days of her independence and glory, rather than by any displays of remaining genius, that she became the object of attraction to cultivated minds. Along with her liberty, Greece seems to have lost much of her capacity for intellectual progress; in fact, she thenceforth gradually retrograded, and, though nothing but the waves of such a barbarian inundation as deluged the Roman empire, could have completely washed away all traces of her past magnificence of genius or elegance of taste, yet had she long before felt that a country which lies prostrate at the foot of another power, is not the soil where science thrives, or the arts flourish, or the spirit of improvement advances to maturity.

Did we not know, that intellectual superiority is no proof of high

moral character, that a cultivated understanding is not always accompanied by a spirit disciplined to habits of self-control and virtuous purpose, we should find it difficult to account for the conduct of Athens above that of any other of the Grecian states during the whole period from Philip's first appearance on the stage to the catastrophe of Cheronæa. The attention of the Athenians must have been directed to their future master at the very commencement of his public career, for they had supported the pretensions of a candidate for the crown of Macedonia in opposition to the one who eventually succeeded, principally through Philip's exertions, by whom however he was soon superseded. Macedonia was at this time in a state of almost total disorganization, a prey to anarchy at home and the object of foreign hostility. An ample field was open to Philip for the employment of those military talents which he had improved under the instructions of Epaminondas during his residence at Thebes. When at length internal discord had subsided beneath his undisputed supremacy, and enmity from abroad had been partly repelled by force, partly disarmed by policy, he was at liberty to apply himself to the consolidation of his power; and in the resolution, not to disband his army, which had now reached a high pitch of discipline, we discover proofs of that political sagacity, for which he was not less distinguished than for his military genius. This force, the earliest model of a standing army with which authentic history makes us acquainted, was in reality the great means by which he raised the power of Macedonia to such an elevation. Ever in a condition to carry into effect the suggestions of his ambition, and none of his enemies having made any change in the old system which made it a work of long preparation to put an army into a state of efficiency, he had mostly the start of his competitors in the field, and often the first intimation which Greece received of his encroachments, was that which brought news of his success.

It required the exercise of no great discrimination in the Athenians to trace the ascendency of Philip to its true source. Demosthenes perpetually reminds his countrymen, that nobody need wonder at the success of one, who, being in a constant state of readiness for action, suffered no opportunity to escape, and by the rapidity of his movements commonly anticipated all opposition. He contrasts the negligence and inaction of the Athenians with the vigilance and activity of their enemy; tells them that Philip would never have risen so high, had they taken from him a lesson of conduct—had they prepared themselves for the field of battle with the same readiness as for the arena of discussion, or been as willing to bear the expense of maintaining an army, as of gratifying their taste for theatrical representations. The orator seems to have formed no exaggerated estimate of the resources of Athens, when he intimates that a timely demonstration of force on her part might have defeated the designs of the tyrant. Her maritime superiority, and her colonial possessions, some of them on the coast of Macedonia, and affording every facility for its invasion, were advantages of such importance as might have enabled her, even single-handed, to oppose, perhaps, an insuperable obstacle to the accomplishment of his ambitious projects. The deficiency of her military preparations, however, rendered it impossible for her to derive much benefit from what otherwise would have become fruitful sources of

power. Her negligence in this respect is inexcusable. She knew that an army was the instrument by which Philip had accomplished every thing—she had long felt her want of one; the theatrical fund, the property of the state, would have defrayed the expense of its support, without the necessity of new taxes, at least to any great extent, and she had a faithful monitor, whose eloquent appeals to her sense of duty and interest might have roused the most worthless or the most imprudent. That the Athenians, under such circumstance, should have persisted in the rejection of the only means which could effect the salvation of their country, because, forsooth, the adoption of them would have interfered with—their honour or religion? no, but—their dramatic entertainments, is a melancholy proof that the highest intellectual cultivation does not secure to a people those moral qualities which constitute true dignity of character; or permit them forthwith to dispense with the services of a body of men, in whom strict and rigorous discipline serves to counteract the enervating influence of habits, which prevail in a luxurious and effeminate age.

The period of extreme civilization is, indeed, precisely that, when it is most necessary for a nation to give a part of her population a military education. The classic writers of antiquity betray no ignorance of the philosophy of history, when they deduce the decline of states and empires from the accumulation of superabundant wealth and the consequent increase of luxury and refinement. This state of things, however fitted to diffuse a taste for intellectual pursuits, has a tendency to destroy that manly spirit and energetic character which is best promoted by a life of hardship and severity. A change of this description was necessarily prejudicial to the army in times when, *no permanent force being maintained*, levies for the emergency were made from among the population indiscriminately, and soldiers, in consequence, brought with them into the field no other qualities than what constituted the national character. But though the historians of Greece or Rome were justified in considering excessive opulence instrumental to the decline of empires, the author of the present day, who would argue that any of those states which have sunk or fallen in the last or since the commencement of the present century, owed its misfortune to the profusion of its wealth, would subject his reputation for political judgment to great hazard. It is now looked upon as a truism, which can be unknown to no one, that the higher the degree of affluence to which a country advances itself, the more remote in all probability is its day of declension. It is not that the influx of riches has ceased to be attended with the introduction of habits among a people which disqualify for a life of toil and danger, but because those on whom the defence of a country in the last resort devolves, now receive an education to supply that deficiency in soldierly qualities which generally exists in a luxurious state of society, and never intermit, even in times of profound peace, those duties and exercises which give coolness to the mind and vigour to the arm in the hour of action.

ON THE NAUTICAL ALMANAC.

> " The clouds may drop down titles and estates;
> Wealth may seek us; but wisdom must be sought;
> Sought before all (but how unlike all else
> We seek on earth!) 'tis never sought in vain."

The public has been teased of late with lugubrious wailings over the imaginary decline of science in England; and while every thing in this country is deplorably corrupt, all the acts and affairs of foreigners are painted as being flourishing and wholesome, and worthy of imitation.—*Credat Judæus Apella.* Who, but those perversely blind, can for an instant believe assertions made in defiance of common-sense and daily observation? The man who, in the face of the increasing spread of intelligence, and the prosperity everywhere manifested, can assert that knowledge is decaying, must be too limited in his views to perceive the evidence of reason. 'Tis partly true, that many of those who have been educated at the public expense, and maintained in " academic bowers," for the sole purpose of exciting intellectual study, have been incapable of carrying abstract theories to the required standard; but, because they have failed in their duties, is the whole English nation to be stigmatized? This is building a pyramid on a point instead of a base, with a vengeance. Commercial activity, political controversies, and a spirit for enjoying independence by employment, have had a great and very proper influence in keeping the majority of our gentry from the mazes of metaphysics and infinitesimals; but look at the condition of our arts and manufactures, our implements and instruments; our docks, piers, and rail-roads; our various philosophical institutions; the trial ships now constructing on enlarged principles by sailors; the degrees measuring in India; the trigonometrical operations in Ireland; and our extensive naval and military surveys;—look at these, we repeat, and then demand whether our science can possibly be on the decline? As to the national character, we need be but little apprehensive of it, while we have to boast such names as enrich its archives, from Newton, Bacon, and Boyle, to those of Wollaston, Young, and Davy; from Locke, Milton, and Shakspeare, to Dryden, Pope, and Byron. We are conscious that a notion of the prodigious superiority of the present age over all others, is an article of faith very pernicious to improvement, and are now merely desirous of showing that England has not degenerated, but that the useful and tangible points of philosophy are more widely spread than ever they were before. We may even soar still higher in the department which has been principally arraigned, and ask with confidence whether the mantles of Flamsteed, Halley, Bradley, and Maskelyne, are not most appropriately worn by Pond, Herschel, Airy, and several others of our contemporaries?—and also whether we cannot proudly boast a galaxy of splendid names in chemistry, electricity, botany, geology, and all the various branches of natural philosophy, as well as in every ramification of literature and the fine arts?

The hacknied method of contrasting countries as to mental eminence, is not always either just or generous, and we have given in to the example only to point our confidence in any comparison that can be made. Knowledge is subservient to the ends of humanity at large,

and the advantages of a discovery are equal, whether it is brought forward in Kent or Kamschatka. Delambre, in the fine *éloge* on Maskelyne, which he delivered in 1813 to the institute of France, observed with equal liberality and judgment—

"Since the establishment of a Board of Longitude in France, the observatories of Paris and Greenwich have been conducted on nearly the same plan, and furnished with similar instruments;* collections of observations are annually published, which serve to verify each other; and when the clouds which overshadowed one of the observatories have not equally extended to the other, the deficiency is supplied. The communication is uninterrupted and the obligations reciprocal: if our tables are in a great measure founded on the English observations, the English observations are partly founded on our tables; but the last of these tables have been corrected by an equal number of French and English observations."

Now this is speaking in proper language and bearing, and we should be happy to think that this interchange of good offices was likely to last: but the recent sudden abandonment of their pursuits by the French philosophers, for politics, places, and pensions, augurs no such result. Nor is it a fair juxta-position to place the progress of science in England on the same scale as that in France. In the one nation it is a part of the state machinery, in the other science emanates from its votaries, and from the unassisted exertions of private individuals; and all the pay and all the honours on the one hand, have not given it more than an equality with the other. For ourselves, we highly esteem the geometers of that nation and we relish its champaigne; but we are not rabid admirers of every thing French. We think the world at large as much indebted to the institution of the Royal Society, as it professes to be to that of the Institute of Paris; and we are quite certain, that with all the alleged faults of the former, the latter would do well to copy its mode of prompt publication.† We even prefer our system, with all its abuses, of electing independent fellows, to the method of pensioning retainers on the French plan, and who, as the Bishop of Blois assured us, were put in or dismissed just like mere custom-house officers. Let them advance as they can, and may we be ever ready to co-operate in any good undertaking: but, without depreciating the labours of a splendid few, we trust comparisons are in our favour as yet; for if we do not evince equal delight in public museums with our neighbours, we can copy inscriptions better than those were done at Amyclæ, and open tumuli with more integrity than those at Sigæum were ransacked; we feel assured our ships can find St. Helena if bound thither; our navigators know which side of the line they are upon, so as to apply right declinations to their altitudes, though a d'Angos would beat us at *manipulating* a comet, and feeding a lizard with two heads; none of our commanders would wish for silver compass-needles to guard against rust; we are confident that our seamen would never

* He might have added by the same artists, for the transit instrument at Paris was made by Ramsden; a mural quadrant by Bird, and another by Sisson; a zenith sector by Graham, and several telescopes by Ramsden, Herschel, and Dollond.

† See the Philosophical Transactions, published this very month. It contains no less than four papers on Physical Astronomy, one on Tides, and two of experimental researches in Electricity,—all of which have been printed nearly as fast as the papers were read.

wantonly destroy each other, like the wretches on the raft of the *Meduse;* and our efficiency in all the various branches of useful knowledge has raised the rank, and power, and happiness of England far above those of France.

That one or two men of exalted talents, and we may add, of amiable dispositions, should have given way to an *ex parte* view of matters, is a subject of deep regret; but only risibility and contempt are excited by the pseudo-scientific curs who, hearing the mastiffs' bark, run yelping in their wake. It is true that on several abstruse points of mathematics our neighbours have latterly forereached upon us, as well as in some of the subtle results of chemistry; but it does not therefore follow that either is in utter neglect *chez nous,* or that the country is indifferent to the progress of knowledge. It is somewhat temerarious in those who rail so much more than they work, to produce their own glimpses of knowledge as the rule of perfection; and because some of our salaried idlers have neglected the lunar, planetary, and cometary theories to a fault, or rather to a crime, the practical tact of hundreds of useful mathematicians and astronomers is to weigh as nothing: an abstract man or two in a century, is as many as the intellectual speculations of the world require, and the happiness, prosperity, and glory of a country is best promoted by the spread of scientific and literary spirit which so singularly distinguish Great Britain. We are also gravely assured that our noblemen do not cultivate science; but he who would say they are not better fitted for intellectual enjoyments, as a body, than any other of similar rank in Europe, should have Mr. Burchell to reply to him. We will admit that our government has not done its duty towards its most deserving characters, that it has been remiss in rewarding them, and that in the formation of *Boards,* whether for longitude or light-houses, or other purposes, they have ever evinced a purblind partiality for absurdity. But we call for a fair statement; much, very much, has been achieved by this same government, as is specially evinced by its costly voyages of discovery, the objects of taste purchased for museums, and the establishment of observatories in the southern hemisphere; and if it has occasionally mistaken quacks for men of merit, and permitted the illustrious names of Wollaston, and Watt, and Davy, to remain undistinguished by them, it has rather been for want of proper advisers than from indisposition to act rightly. Yet the nation at large has not participated in this coldness towards their leaders, albeit, with intrepid contempt of truth, it has been loudly bruited that, while all other nations cultivated the arts of peace, England alone lagged astern.*

A notable proof of increasing thirst for knowledge, in one department of the people, is afforded by the recent disputes respecting the Nautical Almanac, a work which may be deemed the most beneficial boon of all the practical results of astronomy, and which has done more for the advancement of navigation than all the other books put together;—and navigation may be admitted to a high

* Voltaire, whose article on the Royal Society merits an attentive perusal, says:—"One day, a wit of England asked me for the MEMOIRS of the French Academy. It composes no memoirs, I replied, but it has caused sixty or eighty volumes of compliments to be printed."

precedency in Uranian etiquette, even by those who are no admirers of the circumscribed tenets of mere utilitarianism. For this very important national undertaking the public are principally indebted to the zeal of Dr. Maskelyne. This intelligent astronomer having seen the benefit of the ephemeris projected by La Caille, but which the latter could not get adopted in France, proposed a still more comprehensive work; and in July 1765, a Board of Longitude was held at the Admiralty, in which Messrs. Witchell, Lyons, Wales, Mapson, and Dunithorne were appointed computers,—all men who distinguished themselves in endeavouring to promote the lunar method of finding the longitude at sea. It was for the promulgation of this important problem that the Doctor was principally interested; he furnished the most correct data as elements, and gave general directions for the employment of them. At length, in 1767, the work was launched, and though it introduced a new æra in navigation, it was most coldly received by men who confided in their cross-staff and compass, their latitude and look-out; and who knew nothing of the heteroclite appulses of the moon. Smollett, who then held the tiller of the Critical Review, and was supposed—as a bit of a sailor—to know something about it, sneered at the "very extraordinary performance," as one which was quite unnecessary. The idea of correcting refraction on account of the barometer and thermometer, reminded him of a scheme which a man proposed for ascertaining the most advantageous times, depending upon the different pressures of the atmosphere, for purchasing diamonds, and such other jewels as are usually sold by weight. He said that an ingenious mariner, upon inspecting the Nautical Almanac, remarked that in very long voyages the precepts there delivered might probably be of use, with regard to the determination of the longitude; but, in short trips to sea, he apprehended they would be altogether useless, because the voyage would certainly be ended before the necessary calculation could possibly be made. And of the testy critic's own opinion we may produce a sample:—

"With regard to the utility of the work before us, as an astronomical ephemeris for facilitating the calculations to be used in determining the longitude at sea, by an observation of the apparent distance of the moon from the sun or a fixed star, we think it will prove of very little service to the mariners, on account of the difficulty and prodigious labour attending the operations required to produce the necessary corrections; not to mention the confused and almost unintelligible method in which they are described. But granting it were otherwise, what advantage could be gained, after all these tedious and operose calculations were made, to obtain the correction of perhaps only a few seconds, when, at the same time, the very method of taking the distances abovementioned is, in our opinion, subject to much greater variation (upon an optical account) according to the different latitudes in which the observer shall happen to be situated, than all the corrections obtained by the ephemeris put together can possibly compensate?"

Besides what is gleaned by a knowledge of the cycle of Meton, and the change in the Greek year introduced by Iphitus, it is well established that the Egyptians and Arabians used Diaries; and it may be inferred, that the Isiac table, the calendars of Rome, the Anglo-Saxon clogs, and the beautiful Runic primstocks, were their lineal descendants. These, however, from relating rather to superstitious predictions, and observances connected with agricultural routine, had but little

relationship to scientific desiderata. Still, long before the appearance of the Nautical Almanac, there had been ephemerides for either giving directly, or furnishing the means of deducing by easy calculation, the state of the heavens for any instant of time, from any point of the earth's surface: but they were neither comprehensive, nor of the requisite precision. So far back as 1472, Bernard Walther, a rich citizen of Nuremberg, engaged Müller, surnamed Regiomontanus, to publish an ephemeris; and it was continued till 1506. Other countries successively followed this brilliant example of individual zeal, and produced works of varied import. Of these the most respectable was the "Connoissance des Temps," which was first circulated in 1679,—but as its uses were of a general application, the Abbé Pingré undertook an almanac of a more particular tenour; he followed up this enterprise alone during four years, but was then obliged to abandon it. The first almanac in this country, it is generally admitted, appears in the year-book of Henry the Seventh, or about fifteen years after that of Nuremberg. But the late Mr. Jackson, of Exeter, says,—"I have in my possession an almanac made in the reign of Edward the Third, of *parchment*, being about one hundred and forty years prior to Müller's, not in the usual form of a sheet, or a book, but in separate pieces, folded in the shape of a flat stick, or lath, in the Saxon fashion; it is perfectly fair, and exhibits the best specimen of ancient numerals I have yet met with."

After the appearance of Dr. Maskelyne's publication, the "Connoissance" was modelled upon the same plan, and a very friendly intercourse ensued between the French savans and the Doctor—they supplying him with tables, and he, in return, furnishing them with calculations; and it is probably owing to this amicable correspondence, that our astronomers have looked more to available computation and observanda, than to the building of tables therefrom; and it is a characteristic of the two nations, that the French have usually depended more upon theory than practice, while we have followed the contrary bent almost to an extreme. Blessed be those tabulating geniuses who clear away obstacles, and lighten the balance of computation,—but without at all undervaluing such services, we confess we do not place them in the first rank of physical science, any more than we should those most useful pioneers of literature, the compilers of dictionaries, in the van of authors. Although we would not expressly hire them into our establishments, we entertain no great horror of seeing foreigners wear these numerical trammels; and we have ever felt elated that the munificent conduct of our government towards Euler and Mayer, has given encouraging inducements to a useful class of mathematicians, who, from having fewer active engagements than most English gentlemen must encounter, have full leisure for the employment. To the industry of the French and German computers, we owe both the solar and lunar tables; but even in them the theory of Newton was principally confirmed by the numerous and accurate observations taken at Greenwich during a long series of years, with the greatest skill and the best instruments extant. Good observations, such as those furnished by Bradley and Maskelyne, are unquestionably the foundation of all astronomy, as they afford the only just data from which the calculus of the theorist can deduce any useful or interesting result: but to

render them available to the height they were then carried, required the very people who superintended,—for if unaccompanied by mathematical acquirements, the art of observing is merely a mechanical operation. As the Nautical Almanac is always published six months before the Connoissance des Temps, the French have been railed against for copying some of the details upon an altered meridian. Now, as the work is avowedly grounded in great measure upon their tables, and they are satisfied of its accuracy, we can perceive no good reason why they should not avail themselves thereof; and we cordially join in the petulant reproof of our friend Arago, who, on being twitted with this practice, replied, "S'il y a du mérite à servir d'exemple aux autres, il y en a peut-être plus encore à ne pas s'en vanter soi-même." From such premises it will be seen that these two publications, instead of being so frequently pitted against each other, should be regarded as brethren; and we hope they are yet destined to continue, for many centuries to come, the inestimable services which they have rendered to Geography, Navigation, and Astronomy; and that they may also continue to grow with the growth of knowledge, and strengthen with its strength.

We should have mentioned the Board of Longitude in 1714, as an institution which does peculiar honour to Great Britain; nor was the example followed till June 1795, when the French established an admirable improvement upon ours, as one of the most effectual means of raising the scientific character of their marine, and thereby "étouffer la tyrannie Britannique." It is supposed that our idea of making longitude a national concern, was biassed by the miserable loss of Sir Cloudesley Shovel's ships, because one of the reasons for proposing the bill for rewarding the discovery of the longitude says, that a knowledge of this point would have saved the fleet. For the objects which were proposed, and ends gained, we may refer to M. Gregoire's report to the National Convention, at the opening of the French Board.

"Presque toutes les nations qui fréquentent la mer, ont ouvert des concours relatifs aux longitudes; mais rien n'égale ce qu'a fait l'Angleterre à cet égard.

"En mille sept cent quatorze, à Londres, fut formé un comité auquel on appela les plus grands hommes de cette contrée: Newton était du nombre. C'est là, dit Fleurieu, qu'on fixa les limites de l'erreur; et après la délibération du comité, le parlement publia un bill solemnel, pour inviter les savans et les artistes de toutes les nations à s'occuper du problême des longitudes: un prix de vingt mille livres sterlines fut proposé pour celui qui trouverait la longitude à un demi degré près.

"D'autres sommes moins considérables furent assignées, tant pour des tables solaires et lunaires, que pour des découvertes moins importantes.

"L'horlogerie, la mécanique, la géométrie, l'astronomie, ont disputé la gloire de résoudre ce problême: toutes se sont assuré des droits à la gratitude des nations. Tandis que l'astronomie perfectionnait ses méthodes pour mesurer les distances de la lune au soleil et aux étoiles, ce qui lui donne la différence des meridiens, l'horlogerie exécutoit les montres marines, d'ont l'idée n'était pas neuve, mais dont l'application l'était.

"Le gouvernement Anglais accorda des sommes exorbitantes, soit pour faire imprimer les nouvelles méthodes, soit pour récompenser Bird, Ramsden, et surtout Harrison, dont les montres furent essayées avec succés dans divers voyages aux Barbades et à la Jamaique."

Some of the old seamen did not altogether relish the new "leger-

demain," as it was called; and they adhered with superstitious fondness to their old modes, and their old almanacs. This is not surprising, for in the state of knowledge which we are said to have *declined* from, they were captivated with certain astrological predictions of the weather, which being according to the doctrine of probabilities, and as liable to be often right as wrong, were regarded as oracles. Nor was this all;—the valuable art of healing was displayed astronomically, and it appeared much easier to administer a bolus than clear the lunar distance of parallax and refraction. In these sagacious productions, "blood letting" is regulated by the quarters of the moon; cathartics are recommended "when the moon is in trine, or sextile aspect with Venus, decreasing in any of these three signs, *Cancer, Scorpio,* or *Pisces;* because when a moist planet in a moist sign hath such an aspect, the humours in the body are then stirred." To promote this effect, preparatory medicines are proposed "whilst the moon is in *Gemini, Libra,* or *Aquarius.*" An emetic, to be quite effectual, must be taken "when the moon is in *Aries, Taurus,* or *Capricorn;* and know that the aspects of the moon with *Saturn* or *Mars,* or the moon in *Leo,* ought to be eschewed in the taking of medicines."

This, however, though a somewhat numerous, was not the select class; and Dr. Maskelyne had the satisfaction of seeing his *nautical stars* universally adopted, and his scheme matured, in the most gratifying manner. The almanac obtained general circulation, not only as a marine, but also as an astronomical ephemeris, and the objects, arrangements, and rigid accuracy of its execution, became the subject of warm eulogia; added to which, many valuable papers were occasionally subjoined, which were directly or indirectly connected with its general contents, and principal object. De Lalande remarked, that "this work, so important for navigation, is calculated with a scrupulous precision, through the zeal and munificence of the English Government. * * * Never had so many persons been employed, so much time, or so much expense been incurred for ephemerides, nor had there ever been any so important before to calculate." Bode declared it to have been the parent of the almanacs of Milan and Berlin, which respectively appeared in 1775 and 1776. Laplace thought the publication of it a most interesting astronomical epoch; and the celebrated and scientific Piazzi,* in the 79th volume of the Philosophical Transactions, says, that he made use of the elements which the Nautical Almanac furnished him with, "that being a work the most perfect of its kind that ever appeared."

This was the gratifying position which our national ephemeris maintained for half a century; and both astronomers and seamen found themselves relieved from the greater share of the drudgery of computation. But the spirit of observation created by the work itself, brought on a necessity for its advancing in an equal ratio with the progress of inquiry, and the improvement of means. The evident advantage of assimilating all branches of practical science

* It is singular that two great contemporaneous mathematicians, the one French, and the other Italian, should bear so nearly the same name. And we have known a little confusion amongst the astronomers respecting, Pons, Pond, and Pound; the two Herschels, and the battalion of Cassinis.

had not occurred to Dr. Maskelyne, for though he expressly alludes in his first preface, to astronomy and navigation, it is evident from his eagerness to enable mariners to find their longitude at sea, that he wished the astronomical to be subordinate to its nautical utility; for he says, speaking of the lunar observations, "The difficulty and length of the necessary calculations seemed the only obstacles to hinder them from becoming of general use, *to remove which this ephemeris was made.*" When he wrote this he could not have conjectured that so different a field of talent would open; and that his recommendation of telescopes of twenty feet focal length, as the most proper for observing the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites, would so soon appear preposterous. Nor was this the worst: it was latterly found that the work fell off in correctness, that the predicted phenomena were much fewer than at first, and that several errors had been allowed to creep into its pages, and take up their abode. Respectful representations of these defects were made, in the proper quarter, but unfortunately the erudite philosopher who was charged with the superintendence, was deeply interested in various other pursuits, and unlike Maskelyne, who created talent, he entertained the erroneous notion that the Nautical Almanac should be suited to the common rather than the intelligent mariner. We ourselves personally requested of him to grant an extension of the list of occultations of fixed stars by the moon, because it affords a beautiful and enticing system of measuring arcs of the meridian. But this and other solicitations were received with a chilling coldness, and the attempts to justify the several omissions were of the feeblest import imaginable. Two adverse parties were thus originated; the one defending "things as they existed;" and the other attacking them "tooth and nail," as being altogether a national disgrace. Both were wrong: on the one hand it is unquestionable that the negligences were highly blameable, and on the other, the publication was too broadly abused. An official, whose scientific wants are stored in a nut-shell, and whose authority for the assertion is most questionable, told a wondering House of Commons that the Nautical Almanac had become a by-word amongst the literati of Europe. An astronomer, rushing forth in a more expensive suit of armour than the official's, made a furious tilt at the superintendent, and smote him on the hip. The pseudo-geometer of the Court Journal entered the arena with an assurance that the later publications were but reprints of the old ones; and the editor of the Nautical Magazine* picking up a broken lance, innocently informs us

* We wish this editor abundant circulation and a cargo of success,—but to ensure them he must approach questions of science with more deference. He thinks the letter of an anonymous and silly Yankee, who wishes to rob England of an invention, must be "interesting to naval readers." This absurdity is extracted from the Portsmouth Herald, and purports to show how one Mister Godfrey, a glazier of Philadelphia, was mending a first-floor window, and how with a piece of glass in each hand, he saw a double reflection. *Parturiunt montes!* The happy glazier forthwith darted through the streets exclaiming "I've got it,"—"I've got it,"—but the deponent gives the expression in cacophonous English, whereas we have no doubt that Old Putty shouted out the veritable εὕρηκα, εὕρηκα, which even a Cicero proudly repeated after Archimedes. But what had this clubmate of Franklin, and Francis the fish-eater, found? "Double reflection" will no more make a quadrant, than a clove of garlic can cook a French dinner. To be

that in the observatory the Nautical Almanac was next to useless,—and that since the death of Dr. Young, this national publication had fallen into disrepute, arising from the numerous errors which have been found in it, "TO THE MANIFEST RISK OF NAVIGATORS!" Now, the Rev. R. Sheepshanks, whose gratuitous gift of a planetary ephemeris to the astronomical world, stamps at once his regard for science and his proficiency therein, has declared that he esteems the Nautical Almanac as one of the very best publications extant. And Professor Airy, decidedly one of the most accurate and comprehensive geometers of the day, expressed himself thus in 1829:—

"This is the only occasion in which I have found it necessary to make any alteration in the numbers of the Nautical Almanac; and I take this opportunity of expressing my opinion of the general accuracy of the work. I have examined about 250 places of the moon, and perhaps five times that number of places of the sun, in such a manner that it would be scarcely possible for an error of two seconds to escape notice; and have not found in the Almanacs for several years a single instance (except that mentioned in the text,) in which such an error appeared to exist. That such a work can, before comparison with some similar work, or with other calculations relating to the same subject, be printed without errors, no person who has had any experience in complicated calculations will easily believe: in the statement which I have made, I suppose the corrections usually printed in the next year's Almanac to be applied. I know that for several years past the Nautical Almanac has been more correctly printed than before it was placed under Dr. Young's superintendence; I know that it is more correct than Schumacker's tables; and I believe it to be more correct than the Connoissance des Temps. I have thought it proper to express this opinion, partly to correct an accidental mistatement of my estimation of the respectability of the Nautical Almanac, but principally in justice to the memory of the illustrious philosopher by whom that work was lately conducted."

And as follows in 1830:—

"The observed places of the Sun, Moon, and Planets, have been compared in this volume with their places given in the new Berlin Ephemeris. My reason for adopting this work as my standard of comparison is, that the places of the Sun and Moon are given to one place of decimals further than in the Nautical Almanac, and that the places of all the Planets, including the four small ones, are given to the same degree of accuracy. With these individual merits, and with the advantage of uniting them all in the same work, I could not hesitate in comparing every planetary determination with the places given there. My desertion of the Nautical Almanac has been occasioned by the imperfection of its plan, and not by any fault in the execution: for I have never seen any work which can be compared with its

---

sure it is said that a kind of quadrant was afterwards cooked up, and that *Lieutenant* Hadley stole a sketch of it in the West Indies. Can it be possible that the editor of the "Nautical" has forgotten that the first principle in optics teaches that the angle of incidence, whatever be the inclination of the incident ray, is equal to the angle of reflection? So far back as 1672, a reflecting quadrant was made for Dr. Halley, from a paper by Newton, and the invention of Hadley, which was a superior modification of similar principles, followed it; and this is the instrument which, with the improvements of Maskelyne and Peter Dollond in 1772, and the skill of Troughton, has acquired its present extensive utility. *Lieutenant* Hadley,—the personal friend of Newton, Hooke, Coates, and Halley—who was vice-president of the Royal Society more than a century ago, must have been a very Nestor, to be filching a patent after the American war!

typographical correctness in all parts, and for accuracy in all respects, where accuracy formed a part of the design."

These manly opinions are here cited for their frankness, but they do not altogether meet the question, for though there is a great identity of interest in much of the detail, still the objects of a fixed observatory must, in this publication, be deemed subservient to those of the floating one. We find that the Professor cleaved to a foreign ephemeris on account of the "*imperfection of plan*" in our own. Now this is precisely the point complained of, and what constitutes the besetting sin of the late superintendent; for the most reasonable of the "carpers" have grumbled rather at the errors of omission, than of commission. It is an unquestionable fact, indeed almost a truism, that the advance of navigation will always be commensurate with the progress of practical astronomy; the more, therefore, these two branches are assimilated, the greater will be the security and confidence of those upon the pathless ocean, and the more perfect will become every ramification of geography. Now to effect this, our terrestrial philosophers must clip a little of their exclusiveness, and admit the claims of the unpretending nautical dabsters. It was unkind to cast under the table their petition for redress; and it was absurd to discuss these matters in two successive Boards of Longitude, without a single Sailor as a *de facto* member, although the Chemists, Soldiers, Parsons, and Admiralty Secretaries who composed them, must occasionally have writhed at the questions before them. Even in the reform of 1818, and in the attacks which that ill-fated assemblage for "the discovery of longitude at sea," had to sustain since, there was still the same deficiency of professional advice and judgment,—although, during the whole period, the nation might have commanded the services of such men as Beaufort, Owen, and Heywood, who were all three resident in or about London. Had such aid been called in, we think we could point out where poor Old England might have kept a few thousands in her purse, but that such is not our object,—*at least for the present.* We must now proceed with our subject, by calling in Mr. Francis Baily, an energetic champion of the scientific "reform" party, because his profound attainments are matured by judgment; and also because it is just to hear the voice of one to whom both the maritime, as well as the astronomical public, are under the deepest obligations. In the appendix to the well-known volume of formulæ and tables which he printed and distributed at his own expense, this gentleman opens some useful and forcible strictures with these observations:—

"In the infancy of the science (for the present system of astronomy is of no very ancient date), the public were satisfied with the meagre details thus given in the Nautical Almanac; a work which was, perhaps, sufficiently well adapted to the wants of astronomers at the time of its establishment, but which falls far short of what is *now* required. New discoveries and new modes of observing—a more refined analysis and more improved instruments—have given rise to new wants and to new claims: so that what might be well suited to the last century, is no longer tolerable in the present one. *(Where is the decline of science visible in these sentiments?)* Many of the states on the continent have long seen this, and have improved their national ephemeris accordingly; and this improvement has most unaccountably been in the inverse ratio of their interest in navigation and nautical astronomy, which it is said these publications were originally and princi-

pally intended to promote. Indeed, it has been pertinaciously maintained by some persons, that the Nautical Almanac was originally established, and *is now continued for this sole purpose;* whilst others consider that it ought to partake more fully of (what its title imports) an *astronomical* ephemeris. But it will not be difficult to show that it is not adapted either for one or the other (at least to that extent which the present state either of navigation or astronomy demands); and that it is a constant charge upon the nation, without any equivalent advantage to science." * * *

"Whatever may be the future intentions of the Government, however, it must be evident to the most common observer, that the alterations and improvements here suggested would not be altogether for the benefit of astronomy alone, since they bear very powerfully on navigation also. Many voyages of discovery and scientific research have lately been made, and many are still in a state of progress conducted by men of high scientific attainments, who are an honour to the country that employs them, and who have the proud and enviable satisfaction of knowing that, after having triumphed in war, they can also serve her in the no less brilliant walks of peace. In fact, there probably never was a period when the Royal Navy of Great Britain could boast of so many officers so devoted to science, and so proud of promoting its objects. Many of these, *I know*, lament the present defective state of the Nautical Almanac, and the *necessity* of referring to *foreign* ephemerides for what *ought* to be contained in our own.* Surely it is of some importance to foster and keep alive this laudable spirit in our navy, and to afford them every means for multiplying observations, which in many cases may be absolutely necessary for the safety of their vessels; and which, at all events, must inevitably tend to the promotion not only of astronomy, but also of geography, hydrography, and navigation.

"Besides, it frequently happens that, during these expeditions, a temporary landing is made at places either wholly uninhabited, or whose positions are but very badly determined. It is, therefore, desirable, that every facility should be given for obtaining the longitude and latitude of such places in the most expeditious and correct manner, otherwise one great object of the voyage is lost; and the more these means are multiplied, the more likely are we to obtain a favourable result to our inquiries.

"The subject is, in fact, of so much importance in a national point of view, whether we consider it in its relation to the safety of our navy, or the scientific honour of the country, that I trust the subject will attract the particular and serious attention of the Government. Indeed, it might be a fit subject of inquiry in either House of Parliament, whether the funds appropriated (from the *public purse*) towards the formation and superintendence of the Nautical Almanac, might not be made more effective than they now are: whether a much better work, at a much less expense, might not be produced; and whether, in fact, it might not even be made a source of revenue. The annual sale of the Nautical Almanac is about 7000; but the combined sale of all the other almanacs is nearly a MILLION copies; and many of these (*risum teneatis?*) are not much inferior to the *present state* of the Nautical Almanac. It is, I fear, too generally supposed that those popular works are composed by men who live in garrets, and who pander to the ridiculous follies and absurd prejudices of the vulgar. This, however, is not the fact. The superintendents of some of those Almanacs are men of high character and superior attainments, who are not only desirous of im-

* "Witness the remarkable fact mentioned by Mr. South, that Capt. Smyth (whilst employed by the Admiralty in surveying the coasts in the Mediterranean), was obliged to refer to *foreign* ephemerides for information which was *not to be found* in the Nautical Almanac. To which may be added, that when the expedition to the North Pole sailed in 1824, a society furnished Capt. Parry with their copy of the *Moon-culminating stars*, (published by the Danish Government,) for the purpose of making observations for more effectually determining the longitude of such places as he might visit in his adventurous voyage."

proving the works placed under their direction, by introducing therein a variety of new scientific and astronomical subjects, but also of removing the rubbish which annually disfigures some of their volumes. But they have the *insuperable* prejudices of the vulgar to encounter; and after an ineffectual attempt at such a reformation, they have been obliged to abandon it for the present, or, at least, to satisfy themselves with a *gradual* improvement."*

And here we cannot but notice *en passant*, that undue severity has been levelled against the Greenwich Observations. It is true that a few Philomaths, who are unable to command the leisure which a foreign pensionary enjoys, would wish them to be given ready reduced to their hand; and such a step would be hailed as a most desirable improvement. But the routine of an establishment must not be altered at the will of every passer by, for though the desires of two or three zealous astronomers might be met with advantage, we would ever see the National Observatory under the full command of the Astronomer Royal, it being one of the highest intellectual stations in the country. In tracing how this place has been filled ever since its establishment, we find an earnest for letting it take its own course, for its folios have formed that fund to which the whole world owes all the accuracy of modern physical astronomy. This is no idle boast: we have personally heard such philosophers as Laplace, Delambre, Piazzi, Arago, de Zach, Carlini, Caturegli, and Inghirami, acknowledge as much, and eulogise them to the skies. Indeed, as to Delambre, in a paper which he read to the Institute of France on the 4th of Jan. 1813, a time when it was not the fashion in Paris to overpraise any thing English, he expressed himself with equal energy and liberality.

"He (Maskelyne) made," says this illustrious mathematician, "a catalogue of the stars, not very numerous, but corrected in the most careful manner, and which has served during thirty years as the basis of all astronomical inquiries. In short, it may be said of the four volumes of Observations which he has published, that if by any great revolution the works of all other astronomers were lost, and this collection preserved, it would contain sufficient materials to raise again, nearly entire, the edifice of modern astronomy, which cannot be said of any other collection, because to a degree of correctness seldom equalled, and never surpassed, it unites the advantage of a much larger series of observations."

And yet we hear that this national record was asserted, at one of our public boards, to be "held in scorn and derision throughout Europe!" *Horresco referens.* We cannot but opine that these deriders and scorners had never dipped into the pages they were spitting at.

This brings us again to the hacknied vociferations made by the pseudo-scientific mob, as to the incomparable excellence of foreigners over the degraded English; a cry which has encouraged some of our ardent Gallic brethren to snatch sprigs from our laurels. To be sure,

* About nine or ten years ago, the editors of Moore's Almanac began this attempt by discarding the monthly column containing the moon's supposed influence on the several members of the human body, and as an experiment to ascertain the feeling of the public on the occasion, printed at first only one hundred thousand copies. But the omission was soon detected, and nearly the whole edition was returned on their hands, and they were obliged to reprint the favourite column. The total *annual* sale of this work by the Stationers' Company, is nearly *half a million* copies; besides pirated editions of about one hundred thousand copies; and two reprints of it in France,—one at Boulogne and the other at Paris!!!

the nation to which the human race is indebted for the best practical use of liberty of conscience, and a knowledge of the doctrines of gravity and attraction, the laws of light, the theory of colours, the metallization of earths and alkalies, the circulation of the blood, chemical gasses, aberration and nutation, logarithms, chronometers, steam-engines, sextants, and fifty other good things to boot, may very well spare a leaf or two from her wreath. Thus, our very kind friend M. Arago, with equal patriotism and modesty, wishes to grasp the invention of the steam-engine for Salomen de Caus; but no one can examine the toys of that old gentleman without detecting the fallacy of the claim. Nor will we here shield ourselves under what English jurisprudence has wisely ordained, that the inventor of a machine is he who makes a successful application of a particular principle,—a point which was memorably decided in the important trial respecting the introduction of the London achromatic telescopes, instruments which proved such stumbling blocks to the poor Duc de Chaulines and a knot of Parisian philosophers—and if the merit of steam navigation be not ours, which by the ghost of Jonathan Hulls we verily believe it to be, it must be made over, not to De Jouffroy, but to Garay, who is *said* to have exhibited a *vapour boat* at Barcelona in 1543. It is much less difficult to suggest improvements than to effect their adoption: and some of the claims against British inventions rest upon as slight grounds, as would the assertion that our beautiful mode of lighting cities by gas, was borrowed from the "Ex fumo dare lucem" of Horace. We advise our loving *confrères* to continue using our cotton machinery, our chain-pumps, air-pumps, spider-line-micrometers, rail-roads, spherical saws, and all other things which have been brought forward in this country—and it is of little moment who first *thought* of them. How would they like their own invention—the airy, fragile, and almost useless balloon—to be snatched from them? Yet, in 1670, Francesco Lana, a Jesuit of Brescia, very clearly detailed the mode of managing balloons; and but for his religious poverty, and (as with our Bacon when he discovered gunpowder) the apprehension that it might be made mischievous to mankind, he would have tried aërostation himself. We formerly pointed out the invention of the telegraph as being English; and we can show plainly that we had some notions of the properties of a balloon before Lana wrote, and a century and a half before the brave Montgolfiers were born. Turn to the "*Saint's Comfort in the day of death,*" by the Rev. Dr. John Hewyt, a book published in 1658; and at pp. 114 and 115, you will find this notable passage:—

"For whereas all declamations upon the pitiful state of human nature, ought to be so many lively lessons of true humility; and that cloud of misfortunes that showers on their heads, bring them down as low as the centre of the earth; on the contrary, like balloones full of wind, the more they are pressed down the higher they rise; and as it happens in the agitation of a violent tempest, the same wave breaking, makes them sink into the deeps; and keeping itself whole and swelling, carries them up again into the clouds."

Projects for ascending into the air have been studied from all antiquity; and the flying pigeon of Archytas appears to have been the triumph of ancient mechanism. Roger Bacon assures us he could make a machine in which a man might convey himself about in the atmosphere, like a bird; and the secret seems to have consisted of thin hollow globes, of copper, exhausted of air. Bishop Wilkins gives

a distinct hint of the principle of a Montgolfier, in his guessing that ancient automata might have been put into motion by the force of some included air, the powerful refraction of which, he says, could be produced by a "lamp, or other fire," within the figure. Something, however, was still wanting to complete these ingenious speculations; and this was what the French supplied, by largely using that knowledge of the lightness of inflammable gas, for which they were indebted to Cavendish and Black. For this, and wherever they are due, we are willing to return our thanks of acknowledgment; but we cannot, without a "growl," surrender our magnificent invention of the mighty steam-engine,—especially to a people who are indebted to Holyrood, an Englishman, for the introduction of the Arabian numerals, which have contributed so greatly to the extension of the arithmetical calculus. We do not condemn the French for reaping whatever they can, having reluctantly been led into this train by those who so unnaturally undervalue their own soil, and who have displayed more inclination to make charges, than celerity in proving their propositions. To be sure, we apply no fluxionary analysis to the construction of a cart-wheel, but we can assure our grumblers, that they will find a larger stock of applicable mathematics brought into every day's account here, than elsewhere; and that for one reader in France, we can easily produce five in England.

Though our space is too limited to enter properly on the subject, we cannot but note, that we have not only officers holding situations which require great powers of exertion, but that we proudly boast an Admiral's daughter, Mrs. Somerville, as being decidedly at the head of accomplished females. This amiable and charming lady has just published a work on the motion of the heavenly spheres, which, it is not presumption to assert, could have been written by none other of her sex in Europe, and consequently on the globe;—nay, we even fear that numbers of the best educated "lords of the creation" will find themselves taken aback in the attempt at perusing it, and will have cause to regret the not taking in more ballast previous to quitting their moorings. It is true that Madame Chastelet translated the Principia of Newton, and thereby won immortality; but, in the investigation of abstract truths, that lady could make no pretensions to the refined talent of our enlightened countrywoman, who, in her able discussion of the trajectories described by each of the planets round the sun, and of the satellites about their primaries, has handled the transcendental analysis—if the phrase may be permitted—with the paw of a lion.

But we must return to our theme. Fortunately for the best interests of useful science, in the year 1830, the Lords of the Admiralty were drawn into a more immediate connexion with men of talent than they had latterly been; and this incident may be wholly ascribed to the judicious appointment of Capt. Beaufort to the charge of the Hydrographical Office,—a department which had been lying fallow for years. The board now listened to the notes of the tocsin, and a resolution was manifested for pushing the ephemeris to as great perfection as could be obtained. A communication was forthwith opened with that meritorious young body, the Astronomical Society,—a committee, consisting of the first mathematicians and professional observers of England, was convened, and the suggestions arising out of their

deliberations were ordered to be adopted from the year 1834. We could here discuss *seriatim*, the various alterations and additions that were made, together with the alleged reasons for emendations which will, no doubt, exercise great influence over the future progress of naval science. But in order to save space, as well as to prove that *all* our efforts are not despised abroad, we prefer giving a synoptical view of the improvements, by translating it from the report made to the Geographical Society of France, by the Chevalier Bonne, upon the specimen of our proposed Ephemeris, which had been presented to them; and although we have not made up our minds about his fundamental meridian, we willingly tender him our thanks for the candour and ability of his statement; and for his excellent view of a cosmopolite almanac.

"We are happily arrived at an epoch in which astronomy, supported by the most exact observations, made by the most perfect instruments, and founded on sublime theories, which initiate mankind as it were into the mystery of the creation; we live, I repeat, at an epoch, in which astronomy has reached so high a pitch as to enable it to impart a degree of great precision to the Ephemerides. Then again, the activity of the present generation, its taste for science, for discovery, its desire, in short, to increase human knowledge, induce it to plough the seas in every direction and explore the most inhospitable countries. This generation claims from science all that can assist its investigations and insure the fruit of it,—and astronomy can give the desired aid.

"Such are the causes which appear to have led to the successive progress of astronomical Ephemerides, as well as to the very remarkable improvements which the NAUTICAL ALMANAC is about to receive. The various Ephemerides which are published at Paris, Vienna, Berlin, Milan, Coimbra, &c. had each some peculiar advantages, but the English Almanac will unite them all. Even the Connoissance des Temps, which has lately taken part in these improvements, and which is decidedly one of the most complete works of the kind, will be left comparatively far behind; it gives what is necessary, but the Nautical Almanac gives the necessary, the useful, and sometimes what borders on superfluity.

"To give you a general idea, gentlemen, of the additions made to the Nautical Almanac, I may inform you, that the monthly tables, which occupied twelve pages, and which were nearly similar to those in the Connoissance des Temps, will require twenty-two in the new Almanac, or two hundred and sixty-four in the whole year, exclusive of the places of the six principal planets, which will fill eighty more pages. Among the most important improvements ought to be noticed, the Right Ascensions and Declinations of the Moon, calculated for every hour in the day; whilst our Connoissance des Temps gives them only for noon and midnight. This happy innovation will be appreciated above all by seamen, whose calculations it will shorten, in saving them the labour of always using second differences.

"Independent of the numerous additions which the new Almanac will contain, other phenomena will be worked with much greater precision than formerly: thus the hundredth of a second will often be given, where only the tenth used to be given, and the tenth of a second where former computers were satisfied with the whole second. Finally, a remarkable alteration will be observed in the substitution of *mean* for *true* time, which is still adhered to by us, but will be given up in 1835. This substitution appears well founded in reason, since astronomical tables are calculated for intervals of mean time, and all our machines for measuring time indicate only uniform intervals. It was always useful to know the sun's place at the instant of its transit over the meridian: and accordingly it is given for true noon; but *true* time appears only on this solitary occasion, and *mean* time everywhere else.

"It results from the additions that the Nautical Almanac is to receive, that it will be nearly double its present volume, and if its price is also to be doubled, it will then amount to ten shillings, instead of five, in London; it is known, however, how carefully it is printed, and we are aware of the beauty of its paper and the clearness of its types.* Nor are these trifling advantages in a work that has often to be consulted in the night; and if any improvements are to be made on this head in the Connoissance des Temps, it would be very desirable that we should not remain so far behind in its typographical execution. It would be useful to examine whether the types ought not to be thicker, like those of the Nautical Almanac, which appear very preferable.

"As to its constituent materials, the Connoissance des Temps for 1835 will leave little to be wished for by comparison with the Nautical Almanac; the superiority of the latter will then consist only in the place of the moon being given for every hour, and in the ephemeris for the planets. But let us hope, that even these valuable notices will not long remain absent, and that the French Ephemeris, which is already receiving such remarkable improvements, will soon also reach a state of perfection.

"It is difficult to form an idea of the immense calculations requisite for the composition of the Nautical Almanac in its new state, dating from 1834. It is really a frightful labour, and cannot fail of employing a certain number of able computers; and when we recollect that nearly the same calculations have to be repeated at Paris, in London, at Milan, Vienna, Petersburgh, Berlin, Copenhagen, &c. we naturally ask, whether in the present era of high civilization, when the sciences have become a real bond of union among nations, not broken even by war; we naturally inquire, I say, whether it would not be possible to construct an ephemeris which might serve every country, to be edited by a central committee, where the calculations might be made under every possible guarantee, but done once for all.

"The difference of language may be objected, but this would not be a weighty difficulty, for the columns being headed in two or three languages, would obviate every obstacle, if this precaution even were deemed requisite. The difference of meridians might also be objected; since every country calculates from the meridian which it has chosen. At Paris, it is the Royal Observatory; in England, it is the Observatory at Greenwich; at Milan, that of the Brera, &c. but this is truly a very slight advantage for each country, for it is a real one only in the observatory itself, to which the astronomical notices refer, and it is well known that this is the least use made of our ephemerides; everywhere else the phenomena must be reduced to the meridian of the place itself. It would therefore be worthy of our era,—worthy of the high civilization to which Europe has attained, to adopt a common meridian, to which would be referred all the contents of the ephemerides; and this gives an opportunity of repeating the earnest wish expressed in the works of the illustrious Laplace, to see Mont Blanc chosen as the first and common meridian for all Europe. I here renew this zealous desire of our great geometer, and recommend it to your meditation. Its accomplishment would occasion great economy in the computation of the work, and what is still of greater consequence, it would introduce more simplicity and uniformity in astronomical calculations."

In pronouncing the remodelling of the Nautical Almanac to be an important advantage both to science and the national character, we cannot conclude without noticing the gratification which the naval service has experienced on finding in these days of "decline," that a member of their body has been found capable of undertaking the direction of the ephemeris, with the whole of its additions and im-

* We are happy to assure our Continental friends that it was never contemplated to increase the price of this most useful national work.

provements. This meritorious officer is "only a lieutenant,"—but we cannot suppose the Lords of the Admiralty will prove indifferent to talent, or withhold, in strict adherence to regulation, from Mr. Stratford who fills such an honourable and responsible post, that step of preferment, which should ever be the reward of distinguished zeal and intelligence. Such an act will be gratefully received by the navy, as an attention to its reputation; and it is undeniable, that an occasional tribute of this nature tends to varnish that advancement of interest over merit, which our rulers are so often constrained to countenance; and which, despite of "reform bills," and other infallible elixirs, will probably continue till the millenium.

PROSPECTS OF CANADA IN THE EVENT OF WAR.

The recent occurrences in the disputed territory on the borders of New Brunswick and the United States, which terminated in the assertion of the authority of the former through the ordinary court of law, although not contemplated in the expectation of serious consequences, may yet be naturally supposed to have suggested to many the chance, however remote, of future collision between the two countries, and the question, which it is desirable from time to time to consider, what their relative situations are with respect to war.

We shall confine our observations only to the defence of Canada.

Nothing can be more unpromising than the general aspect of that country in a military point of view: there is no other in the world so peculiarly, and according to the simplest conditions of strategy, so unfortunately situated for defence;—cut off during half the year from intercourse with Britain; and having only one* line of communication, which line is so near the boundary, that a great portion of it is within cannon-shot of the United States. Being thus *all frontier*, with the exception of the lakes and wider portions of the St. Lawrence, and having no other line of operations than this one of communication, it offers no security against an enterprising enemy, for the St. Lawrence being passed in any point, and a position occupied on its banks, the whole country above it becomes virtually paralysed. Notwithstanding the unfavourable nature of this general description, the result of the war in 1812–15 justifies a conclusion of a more encouraging tenor.

Great Britain was then exhausted by a long war: the few troops she could afford to Canada were so disseminated, that it would be absurd to say that they had military possession of any part of it, but by their superiority as disciplined soldiers, they gave such a countenance to the inhabitants, that the country was saved from being overrun. Most of the general officers with these troops, had been all their lives in Canada, and having, of course, seen no service, they could only be considered on a par with the American generals.

The long frontier, or line of communication, had, at intervals, military posts of little strength, and blockhouses,† which were only calcu-

* The Rideau and Ottawa rivers will soon form another.

† Blockhouses were defensible buildings of wood, first introduced as a protection against the savages, and, therefore, they may now be supposed to be obsolete; but with the usual tenaciousness to antiquated customs, a species of the same, having the lower floor of stone and a bomb-proof roof, exhibiting the anomaly of a defence

lated to shelter small detachments against such marauding parties of American militia as were induced to cross the boundary.

If even Upper Canada, with a population of only 50,000, widely scattered, was then able to repel many efforts of invasion during a struggle of three years, how much more encouraging is the condition of the two provinces now! By the last census, Upper Canada contains 235,000 inhabitants, and Lower Canada 504,600.

There are two points of view in which it is now proposed to consider Canada with reference to war with the United States.

1. The present condition as above described, inhabited only on the frontier.

2. The future period when the country shall be peopled at least one hundred miles to the north of the St. Lawrence and the lower part of the Ottawa.

The first period will soon pass away; in the mean time our command at sea, and the possession of Quebec, ensure the supply of Canada with military resources from home. They have been already proved sufficient in times of great difficulty, but they cannot be assumed as ample security against the ordinary contingencies of a protracted war.

Before proceeding to the consideration of the second period, let us examine those portions of the United States adjoining our North American possessions. Commencing from the eastern boundary, it will be seen that the province of New Brunswick completely overlaps the state of Maine, an advantage which is certainly fortunate, as counterbalancing the near approach which that state makes to the St. Lawrence, and which could only have been partially remedied, even by the most favourable decision of the boundary question, referred to the King of Holland. The country south of Quebec, extending to that south of Montreal, is equal in population to the neighbouring New England States. Proceeding further west, the rapid improvement of the country between the St. Lawrence and the Ottawa, will soon render it equal to the opposite portion of the state of New York, while the whole of the remaining part of Upper Canada is advancing at a rate not exceeded by their immediate neighbours on the southern shores of Lakes Ontario and Erie. It is, therefore, not too much to assume, that Canada, single-handed, has, even now, a population so distributed, as to be sufficient for its defence against a much more serious invasion than any which could be effected, supposing that the whole of such an army as the Americans were able to raise during last war, was concentrated in the attainment of one object, instead of being frittered, as it then was, in unconnected attacks.

During the second period of the condition of Canada, referred to above, there will be roads between Upper and Lower Canada, at a distance from the frontier; and the various rivers falling into the St. Lawrence and the Ottawa from the north, will form successive lines of defence, which it would require a large and regularly equipped army to attempt to force, while at such a distance from its resources.

Ere that time, Quebec will have ceased to bear that degree of im-

against mortars, with the power of replying only by a musketry fire, and, perhaps, a field-piece placed on the roof behind a wooden-screen, was not disused until the nineteenth century. In military history they are entitled to be classed with bows and arrows, or matchlocks at best.

portance to the colony due to it by its situation relative to the country in its present state, by its fortifications, and by the spell cast around it in its association with the name of Wolfe, a name ever cherished in the memory of his countrymen, valued the more as the only relief against the long, dim, uninteresting period of our military history intervening between Marlborough and Wellington, and still seeming to stir up our most glorious recollections.*

But it will not be at Quebec, or in any of that which is now the inhabited part of Canada, that her future battles will be fought, if she should ever be compelled to struggle for independence against the United States. Suppose, however, the extreme case of Quebec, and part of the Saint Lawrence, being in the power of the Americans, still the Ottawa and the Saguenay† afford fresh lines of defence, in themselves equally formidable, and with reference to the frontier, impassable. By means of the harbours in the latter river, and the courses of both, a secure communication with the upper part of the provinces could never suffer interruption. Accordingly no time should be lost in extending settlements along those tracts of country between the lake St. John and the river St. Maurice, thence to the interior of the country north of Montreal, and along the rivers running into the Ottawa from the North.

The direction already given to emigration in other parts of Canada, is sufficient to ensure their complete settlement; it only remains for Government to guide it where it is now most desirable. It seems preferable that British settlers should be sent to the above tracts rather than to the Eastern townships, where being interposed on the one hand between the French descendants of different language, habits, and religion, and on the other, the inhabitants of the United States adjoining, whom in those particulars they resemble, they will naturally ally themselves in the private relations of life with the latter. In the event of war, a population of the French Canadians on the frontier, would at once cut off all communication more completely.

It is impolitic, even in point of time, to settle the frontiers at all, until the heart of the country is inhabited, so that a wilderness might intervene to obstruct invasion until the interior acquires more strength.

The tract of country between the parallel of latitude 47°, (five miles north of Quebec,) extending to Lake Superior on the west, and the boundary of the United States on the south, comprises an area of 115,000 square miles, capable of subsisting a population of ten millions, at the rate of about one hundred inhabitants to the square mile. In some of the New England States, there is already a proportion of

* On the publication of Sir John Hope's (subsequently Lord Niddry by creation, and Earl of Hopetoun by inheritance,) despatch announcing the battle of Corunna, the beautiful parallel therein drawn between the fate of Wolfe and Moore seemed, amidst the gloom and sorrow caused by the more recent events, to revive regret for the loss of him who had fallen half a century before.

† "The Saguenay is one of the noblest tributary rivers in North America. For twenty-five leagues up it is navigable for ships of 120 guns, and leads to a vast expanse of fertile country, which surrounds the lake St. John and the banks of the rivers which feed it. The Saguenay has another advantage in the possession of the natural means of defence against any hostile attack: stupendous and precipitous mountains at its mouth and along its banks, forming natural fortresses, to which the citadel of Quebec, all formidable as it is, is not to be compared."

Mr. Stuart's speech in the House of Assembly in November 1831.

seventy to the square mile, so that the one here assumed is not too favourable.

It becomes a subject of interest to ascertain the probable limit of cultivation to the north; a slight comparison with such countries of Europe as are similarly situated, in many respects, will afford data for a rough calculation, and as the climate of North America is more severe, the latitude of sixty degrees, the medium of Sweden and Norway, is assumed as a standard of comparison with the medium latitude of that portion of country from Quebec to the southern shore of Hudson's Bay. The population of Sweden and Norway is seventeen to the square mile: allowing the same portion for the part of Canada referred to, which, extending as far west as Lake Superior, covers about 21,000 square miles, the population would amount to about 3,500,000, being a total of nearly fourteen millions. The settlements already formed on the Red River* prove what can be effected in a latitude as far north as Hudson's Bay. Yet with all these prospects of the rise of an immense empire in these regions, there exists among the inhabitants of the country a singular degree of apathy on all questions relative to the discovery and improvement of its resources. Our only information concerning the northern rivers is derived from the expeditions sent by the French two hundred years ago.† Several exploring parties have been fitted out within the last few years, but it appears difficult to procure for the Provincial Government sufficient funds for acquiring a complete knowledge of the country.

With a view to that period of the advancement of Canada, when the population shall have extended itself at least one hundred miles to the north of the St. Lawrence and the lower part of the Ottawa,

1. The country along the chief tributaries of these rivers, as well as the Saguenay and the St. Maurice, should be settled‡ without delay, in order to obtain series of lines of communication to the upper parts of the provinces at a distance from the frontier.

2. It is obviously impossible that along such an extent of frontier, such a chain of fortified places could be formed as to prevent a partial invasion; no reliance on any system of defending the boundary, therefore, should be held out to the people, for any attempt to do so must necessarily be frustrated, and give an undue importance to an event of no consequence whatever to the result of a war. The appearance of success first given by being on the "Canada side," would soon yield to a just estimation of the trifling advantage gained by it. With the exception, therefore, of such points as command harbours, or the mouths of navigable rivers, all the fortified depôts ought to be several days' march from the frontier. Temporary works, to prevent partial inroads for the purpose of plundering towns or villages, are easily made when hostilities are expected.

---

* By accounts from this settlement, dated Oct. 1831, the last crops had been abundant—beef at three half pence a pound; wheat three shillings a bushel; flour ten shillings a cwt.; every thing else in proportion.

† See Transactions of the Literary and Historical Society of Quebec, vol. i. p. 54.

‡ The number of linear miles to be settled would be about three thousand, the lots being given on both sides of roads and rivers, two hundred acres in each; six families or lots on every mile of road. In the year 1831 fifty thousand emigrants reached Quebec, of whom one-fourth may be stated as working men. In two or three years the total required lines of communication might be settled; the cutting out of roads, thirty-three feet wide, at 4*l.* the acre, would cost 48,000*l.*

3. But strong natural positions, such as isolated hills, promontories on the banks of rivers or lakes, and islands in them, should be selected to serve as depôts and places of security for valuable effects: and other positions on an extended scale should be chosen for *points d'appui*, or entrenched camps, where the militia could assemble. In such positions it would only be necessary to build barracks, magazines, throw up batteries and epaulements to shelter the buildings, and construct small but permanent interior redoubts. The expense of regular fortifications, at all times great, would thus be avoided.

4. Such of the usual roads of the country as seem best adapted for military purposes, should be taken under the special care of Government: for instance, those which are nearly parallel to the frontier, also a few of their branches towards the frontier: an example of such military roads would be one twenty or thirty miles north of the St. Lawrence, between Quebec and Montreal, having branches along the Jacques Cartier, the St. Maurice, and at such other intervals as the nature of the country would indicate.

It is difficult to conceive such a relative state of the two governments, as that in which an American army could advance into the interior of a country like Canada, intersected by so many deep and rapid rivers, and could command more than the ground it would occupy, if the inhabitants withdrew their valuable effects, cattle, and provisions, so as to compel the enemy to derive their supplies from their own country, when every step of their march would be met by hordes of the hardy natives, "Lions of the North," issuing from their fastnesses. The result would certainly be a repetition of the Russian campaign, without a Napoleon to direct.

We do not know any country offering a more encouraging prospect than Canada: it must eventually have the power of deciding, whether, with a degree of liberty equal to Britain and the United States, but with an exemption from the cares and expenses of government superior to both, she shall choose between the two, or by an attempt to set up for herself run the risk of having to assert her independence single-handed against the United States. Strong as the country will be in the improved state to which it is rapidly approaching, it is not less formidable from the nature of its inhabitants. The French descendants are a very hardy and active race; and their cheerful spirit under the privations incident to war, renders them peculiarly adapted for soldiers. Charlevoix said of old "*que les Canadiens sont naturellement des bons soldats,*" and they have never belied the character.

During the last war, they were only brought into contact with the enemy on a few occasions, and it certainly happened that on every one of them their enemy were worsted. The late Sir George Prevost had made himself very popular with them, and he excited a spirit of resistance to invasion which deterred the Americans from entertaining any hopes of success in Lower Canada; it was only on the few scattered British troops and scanty population of Upper Canada that they flattered themselves with an easy conquest. The French Canadians continue to retain that love of distinction which has so often rendered their gallant ancestors illustrious in Europe, and we take this opportunity of saying, that none would prize more than they those honorary badges which are so much sought after elsewhere. Medals to those

who were in action last war, and some privileges attached to them, should at all events be bestowed in a public manner.*

The provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick have been altogether left out of the above considerations, because they are accessible at all seasons, and from their geographical situation, they must have great command over Maine, should that state become forward in an attack on Canada. C.

MARITIME SPECULATIONS.

NO. I.

PATRONAGE AND PREMIUM PROMOTIONS.

"Here 's patronage, and here our heart descries,
What bursts its bonds—what draws the closer ties;
Shows what reward our services may gain,
And how, too often, we may *serve* in vain."—CREECH.

He who from motives of pleasure or necessity may have had frequent occasion to sail across the British Channel, must, no doubt, have observed with what ease and facility this short voyage is performed, even in the most indifferent of sailing craft, manned and navigated by cockneys peradventure, provided said bark has been greeted on her way with a favourable breeze, and blessed with that agreeable accompaniment to aquatic excursions, a smooth sea. Arrived in port, the delighted voyager springs to land, his whole frame braced and invigorated by the cool fresh breeze of ocean, his mind filled with cheering hopes or occupied with pleasing anticipations—at peace with himself and in charity with all around him, he feels alike prepared for business or for recreation. But, oh, how different is the landing of that unlucky wight whom fate has tempted to brave the terrors of a downright adverse channel breeze, when the rude gusts sweep on at sad and dreary intervals, and the white cliffs of Albion are ever and anon obscured by the thick coming drift, and the dark waves borrow a still darker tint from the melancholy canopy of low-hung clouds as they drive across the wild expanse of water, and all the efforts of the most determined perseverance, and all the exercise of the most consummate skill, and all the excellence of the smart and well-formed cutter, are barely equal to maintain the long protracted strife. Wearied and worn out with toil and sickness, the wretched traveller crawls onward to his inn, his mind absorbed in the gloom of its own misery, callous, impassive, desolate—alas! how unlike the ardent, vigorous, confident spirit which morning ushered in—"how like a younker, or a prodigal, lean, rent, and beggared by the strumpet wind." Such, on life's ocean, is the awful difference between the patronised and the unprotected individual; the former sails gladly on to rank and emolument, the latter must still keep turning to windward, and even when his bark is steered by the hand of genius, and ballasted with talent of no ordinary stamp, he too frequently finds himself overtaken with the darkness of age long before he has worked up to that commanding station whence he can impart important truths to benefit mankind, or apply important principles in the service of his country.

* A short account of the Canadian militia, Canadian voltigeurs, and Canadian fencibles, will probably follow these brief and general observations.

It is curious to observe how far the usages of remote and barbarous periods come downward through succeeding years, and take their station, unquestioned and unchallenged, amid the systems of more enlightened times, long after the necessities which first gave rise to their adoption have ceased to exist. Of this class is *one* time-honoured subject of our present speculation, which, sanctified by the dust of years, has hitherto led its votaries on to rank and emolument with a reckless disregard of consequences, alike injurious to our glory as a nation and our interests as a civilized people. Public attention has lately been extremely directed to this important subject, and those sentiments and feelings connected with patronage and fostered by the exclusive nature of its private or official appropriation, which have long been afloat in the minds of "the United Service people," seem at length to have taken a loftier flight, a more extended range; and it is probably not too much to expect, that even in the tranquil hours of peace the spirit of modern improvement may devise some means by which talent and intelligence shall be propelled to windward despite of waves and tide, and brought to the service of its country in all the vigour of manhood. We confess it was with no ordinary satisfaction that we observed the subject of patronage brought forward a short time ago in the Upper House of Parliament,* when the abstract merits and practical application of that most onerous public trust were attacked or defended by some of the wisest and most able of our senators. The question may, at no distant period, again occupy the attention of the legislature, and though we by no means wish to see its workings, either in principle or in practice, accommodated to what is understood by "the march of intellect," still we shall rejoice to learn that they have been placed somewhat more in unison with the progress of enlightened public opinion.

The system of which patronage is at once the forehand and sinew, is no doubt closely interwoven with the whole fabric of our national constitution and establishments—the church, the senate, the bar, the finance, the army and the navy, are alike under its all-pervading influence; and though it would be accounted utterly Utopian to suppose that simple merit can ever form an exclusive claim to preferment, still we are satisfied that, by ascertaining the amount and commuting the value of private or family patronage, by regulating public patronage, and restricting it to the legitimate purposes of government, by adapting, in short, the whole process to the advanced state of intelligence, the necessities and general spirit of the age, it might be made to promote merit without lessening the acknowledged principle of its general expediency to reward industry, talent, and zeal, without inflicting individual injustice upon members of the several professions connected with the religious, the civil, or the military services of the community.

It is by no means our intention to enter upon an examination of the various purposes to which patronage is made subservient throughout the British empire; the subject is much too intricate for our investigation; besides, state politics and the learned professions are matters which come not within the point-blank of our ordinary speculations. Nor do we intend to say anything on the question of army promotions: upon which subject an article will be found in the Thirty-sixth, or

* House of Peers, March 12th.

November, Number of this Journal, written with the spirit of a Soldier and the heart of an Englishman. It is of patronage bearing upon naval promotion that we now propose to offer a few remarks; patronage, as applied to that profession with which we are most conversant, and in which the whole habits of our life have been formed.

The means by which promotion is obtained in the navy are of three kinds—first by political influence; secondly by service or merit; and thirdly by being patronised by the commander-in-chief on some foreign station. The two former modes of promotion are exclusively in the hands of the First Lord of the Admiralty; the latter arises from certain vacancies in the gift of officers commanding on foreign stations, who are notoriously underpaid in money and have patronage, as we understand, substituted for salary. The first two we consider the legitimate application of patronage, and were our natural protector the First Lord only placed in a less false position towards the service over which he presides, this would become most beneficial. The last, like all other systems of family patronage, is attended with unmitigated evil in the navy, as well as in every other profession in which it is suffered to exist. In proceeding with our investigation, we shall first refer to patronage as a legitimate political engine in the hands of Government, and afterwards endeavour to point out its evils when used as a source of emolument for the friends, connexions, and kindred of underpaid men in authority.

In considering patronage, therefore, as a legitimate engine in the hands of Government, we at once disavow all intention of entering into discussions upon the first principles and abstract rights of government; such speculations are only fitted for some new Atlantis or Utopia. It is of this everyday world that we mean to speak, where it still seems a necessary, though, no doubt, a melancholy fact, that in every government the magistrate must either possess a military force, and rule by absolute decrees and rigorous police enactments, or he must enjoy some discretionary power to bestow gifts and preferments upon such as maintain his authority or support his measures. In the former kind of government, where a murmur may cost a man his head, force, fraud, and favouritism are too apt to become the main springs of action; in the latter, the ruler having no such summary means by which he can silence service-claims, or suppress discontent, bribes, pensions, and patronage, usually form the prevailing argument to all, indeed, but those rare individuals who do their duty because it is their duty, and whose recompense, like the consolations of virtue, are too frequently drawn in all their sweetness from themselves. And though pensions and patronage have long been considered dangerous expedients for government, such as cannot be too carefully watched in their application, especially when directed against the virtues or the liberties of a people, nor too vehemently decried when used so as to cripple the defences of a nation, by sending shallow, ill-informed men into her military services; still many men of influence are led to regard them as taxes which all free nations must pay for the enjoyment of civil liberty; perhaps not the less so from a reasonable belief that, in the ordinary course of events, a certain share of the said taxes must fall to themselves, or to the party with which they are connected in the state. Mankind, say they, are placed between alter-

natives, which offer only a choice of dangers or of difficulties, and, of course, bribes, pensions, and patronage, are much better instruments to govern by than star-chambers, inquisitions, and *lettres de cachet*,—a proposition to which we give our most cordial assent; nay, we will go farther; we consider bribes, pensions, and patronage, not only better than star-chambers, inquisitions, &c. but ten thousand times better than the jacobinical violation of reason and morality, which would appeal at every turn to this brute force of the mob, and endeavour to assimilate our national character to the swinish ignorance of the lowest rabble. But is there no mean? no middle course in the active spirit of reckless and high-handed patronage, the only check which an enlightened government can oppose in her military arrangements to the encroachments of frantic or overbearing jacobinism? In our humble conception, there is a most effectual preventive to be found, moreover, in the military virtues of the officers themselves; it is of a self-denying nature, however, and therefore cannot be applied, save by legislative enactment. We shall take occasion to examine this matter more narrowly when we come to consider the second division of our speculation, namely, the establishment of certain premium promotions and appointments, to be given to talent, intelligence, and service-claims, without reference to party or to patronage.

We have already said that we consider official patronage, under proper restrictions, as a most legitimate engine in the hands of government: in a nation, like Great Britain, for instance, where the minister is very properly held responsible for the advice which he may think proper to offer to his Sovereign, and the measures which he advises him to pursue, he, of course, must have the undisputed power of choosing those persons into whose hands the execution of those measures are entrusted, and he naturally patronises his political supporters. In arbitrary monarchies force is the moving power; in jacobinical systems terror will always prevail. In all modifications of these, we find the see-saw, the *bascule* of the French Directory resorted to,—a mean and temporising policy, which attempts to govern two contending factions in the state by balancing the one against the other, without the minister adhering to either, and always considering the measures of government as affecting one or other of the parties, rather than in reference to the public good. A free government, on the other hand, which shall protect the lives and properties of the governed alike from foreign aggression or domestic broils, must always consist of two well-balanced parties, headed by the rank and talent of the state, acting upon what are called party principles and personal responsibility; the opposition conducting themselves towards the executive rather as to an erring friend whom they desire to put right, than an enemy whom they mean to destroy. "The statesman (says a most intelligent writer) who acts against a party, must act with a party, and conduct his opposition upon party rules, else submit to stand in the absurd predicament of one whose individual zeal may be unbounded in the assertion of certain principles, but who renounces the only means by which it is possible to give those principles effect." But as party zeal might burn out, and party attachments be rent asunder were there nothing but empty fame to be contended for, patronage very naturally enters into the system, and becomes at once the oil by which the lamp of party zeal is fed, and the cement by which (to borrow a geological

phrase) the conglomerate, or *plum-pudding stone*, the reigning administration, is agglutinated and held together; but we are beginning to steer somewhat wild, and may as well endeavour to get back to our former course.

We know that by direct or by indirect means, the few ever have and ever will govern the many. This has been the unfailing, unchanging law of our nature, and it is to be found from the most arbitrary monarchy to the wildest republic. It does not follow, however, that the few should be suffered in all things to connect their own personal aggrandisement with the happiness of the many, or the defence of their nature. But how is this to be avoided? Dr. Chalmers, in speaking of the "general impression upon all spirits that something must be done," has furnished us with an answer. "To be done well (says the eminent divine), it must not be done by the hand of violence, but by the authority of legitimate power under the guidance of principle; by a government having both the wisdom and the righteousness to direct and the strength to execute."

Legislative enactments requiring certain party sacrifices for public good, can alone give a check to the monopoly of preferment; and so far as the naval service is concerned, we would willingly give up the whole of the patronage, whether of appointment or of promotion, to the party in power, knowing that without well-balanced parties, adieu to the British constitution; provided that a sixth, or even an eighth of such promotions and appointments, were placed in the hands of our natural protector, the First Lord, to be used by him as premiums for service-merit, and over which the party to which his Lordship belonged, should have no control or influence whatsoever; for we will venture to say, that there never was a First Lord at the Admiralty who would not most willingly have fostered genius and encouraged professional merit, and that on the instant, had the importunity or the rapacity of his Lordship's political supporters suffered him so to do.

In all justice to our rulers, we must here observe, that ever since the return of peace, the claims of occasional battle-service have been at once acknowledged and rewarded, forming a striking contrast to the state of things during the war, when successful battle-service was sometimes requited eight or nine long years after the officer commanding had been recommended for promotion by his superior, and noticed by the Admiralty themselves for his good conduct, &c. in the London Gazette. Perhaps some of our readers may suppose, in what we have already said too much stress has been laid upon the influence which political friends possess over the actions of His Majesty's ministers. Many cases might be pointed out, however, to show that they sometimes ride them like a night-mare. A happy illustration of the manner in which this is done, may be found in the letters of the celebrated Malachi Malagrowther. "*Nos numerus sumus*," (says Malachi) is a logical argument perfectly understood by an English minister, and has great weight in the scale;" the "ludicrous instance" which follows, though *apropos*, is somewhat too long for our limits.

It must have been the contemplation of some such infliction that induced Sir Robert Walpole to characterize patronage as the art of disobliging a hundred for the purpose of making *one* individual ungrateful; for we can hardly suppose that much gratitude will either

be felt or expressed by him, who, like the noble Peer cited by Malagrowther, can bully the minister into compliance, though we can easily imagine the grief and irritation which disappointment will naturally produce upon the host of less able and less confident political supporters.

A great deal has been said of late years upon the subject of the aristocracy, as connected with the military services of the country. We have always advocated the cause of good order, and therefore desire most earnestly to see rank and property occupying the proper place in the community. We know and appreciate the value of a hereditary aristocracy, whether as supporting the real dignity of the crown, or protecting the best interests of the people. We acknowledge the benefit arising to the United Service from an admixture of the privileged classes, the more especially as old and established rank, the aristocracy of blood, offers the only counterpoise to the pretensions of the upstart monied aristocracy, who also have much political patronage. We wish to see the nobility enjoy a full proportion of the rank and emoluments of the fleet and army, and therefore do not consider those the friends of their order who would tempt them to grasp at an undue share of the honours of the service as a matter of right; the nobility of England have never had an exclusive right to military rank and preferment. During the feudal system, the barons no doubt exercised full authority over their vassals and retainers, and of course, by reason of their military tenures, were intrusted with the defence of the empire; but those privileges were not handed down to them, as in France and other countries, long after the feudal system had ceased to exist, partly because the middle classes were represented in England sooner than in other countries, partly because of the civil wars, and more particularly because the pretensions of all parties to exclusive privileges were brought to the estimation of the sword, and fairly adjusted in the field of Worcester, long before the introduction of regular fleets and standing armies into the island. Such individuals, therefore, as the decorous and dignified author of "Cavendish," who write in what they are pleased to suppose support of the aristocracy, are the greatest enemies to this order:—a rope no doubt supports a hanged man—in this sense, and in this alone, can the British peerage ever receive support from such writers.

With all our unfeigned respect for the aristocracy, we feel convinced that their services may, and very often are, purchased at too high a price: this, as we have already said, arises in the navy (perhaps in the army also) from the First Lord or Commander-in-chief being placed in a false position. We have already seen that his wishes may be at variance with the measures that are occasionally forced upon him; he has nothing exclusively his own to give, and hence we see talent and intelligence overlooked, and unpatronized professional genius receiving its recompense in so slow a stream as almost to freeze upon its course. Hence, too, we see the well-tried man of battle-service, like his trusty sword of former fields, laid aside to rust in idleness, or preceded in his well-earned appointments by Rivals "who never set a squadron in the field, nor the direction of a battle know more than a spinster."

We shall reserve the subject of private or family patronage, and the consideration of premium promotion and appointment, as matter for our next Maritime Speculation. N. C.

LETTERS FROM THE WEST INDIES.

NO. I.

British Guiana, March 1832.

Rich as your periodical is, my dear Editor, in East Indian and Mediterranean sketches of military life, I do not recollect that you have yet given a page to the lucubrations of any West Indian correspondent. Perhaps the languor of this enervating climate has prevented my fellow sufferers, who are undergoing the evils of this unhappy station, from venting their dissatisfaction in your pages. It has twice been my lot to visit the West Indies, and I have now nearly completed my seventh year of tropical service; I address you from a barrack in this amphibious colony, this land of dykes and dams, so congenial to Dutchmen and bull-frogs. It is now raining as if it never meant to cease—to stir out is impossible, and what can I do to kill the time till the mess-hour? Books are not to be had, and I have read and re-read the newspapers and magazines which arrived by the last packet till, I believe, I know them by heart, advertisements and all. In despair I have taken up my pen, determined to send you a "West Indian" paper, which you may print or put into the fire, just as seems best to your editorial majesty; my end will be answered in either alternative, I shall find occupation this rainy day.

Oh the appalling sound—"Ordered to the West Indies!!!" Never shall I forget the sensation produced in my regiment when this fearful report was received. I was doing duty with a company in a remote detachment in Ireland. The report was first circulated in the men's barrack-rooms; somehow they generally obtain such intelligence before it reaches the officers. I had just come in from a day's snipe-shooting on the surrounding bogs, when my servant told me, as he received from me my gun and helped me off with my shooting accoutrements, that "Corporal Mick Fitzgerald, who writes in the orderly-room at head-quarters, had sent a letter to Pat Kelly of *our* company to say, that the Colonel had got *the letter of readiness* for the West Indies, but that the Colonel was keeping it *sacret* for fear the boys would be desarting."

The following day, my detachment being only thirty miles distant, I paid a visit to head-quarters, and soon found the report was too true. Great was the disappointment at our destination; the best-tempered officers were out of humour and in low spirits, the non-commissioned officers too looked anxious and depressed; but the thoughtless private soldiers, ever ready to welcome a change, seemed rather to enjoy the excitement and rejoice in the news.

And now the depôt system began to work its mischief, and produce jealousies, rivalries, and estrangements amongst the officers of our hitherto most united regiment. The commanding officer received applications from almost every officer, urging his supposed claim "to be appointed to the depôt." The old officers founded their claim upon their seniority; and the juniors urged it because they thought, like a second battalion, the juniors ought to be chosen; married officers pleaded their wives and families, and single young men their soon becoming of age and having urgent private affairs to settle, as a reason for being on the strength of the depôt, so that our Lieutenant-Colonel had a most disagreeable and unthankful office to perform, as in naming

the officers of his depôt he had of course to refuse the greater part of the applications. It is to be lamented that some positive rule is not laid down for the forming of depôts: either let the four senior or the four junior companies be selected, it matters little which, so there is no opening for patronage and intrigue, and for competition and disappointment. As the matter is now regulated, the struggle to be told off to the depôt, when a regiment is ordered to the West Indies, is most revolting and unsoldierlike. It embarrasses the commanding officer, and sends out the officers of the service companies in a disappointed and discontented mood, many of them fancying that their commanding officer has been unjust and guided by favouritism in his selection. All this I have seen in more than one regiment, and it is an evil which need only be made known to be rectified. Why should the *senior major* be the only officer named by regulation for the depôt? leaving all the others to be a matter of patronage instead of right.

Our march to Cork at length took place, and after waiting the usual time in that uncomfortable garrison for our transports, the embarkation succeeded, with the hurry and discomfort usual on such occasions. The voyage was, as all voyages in a crowded transport are, very wretched, till we got into the trades, when it became more bearable. Our grand disappointment however awaited us on our arrival at Barbadoes, where we expected to land and be quartered. We were delighted with the cultivated, smiling appearance of this beautiful island as we sailed along its windward coasts, till Carlisle Bay, with its yellow sands and waving groves of cocoa-nuts, opened to our view. In the midst of our satisfaction at this cheering prospect we were boarded by a staff officer, who brought us the unexpected and unwelcome news that we were destined to proceed to Demerary, to relieve a regiment which had long been in the West Indies.

After remaining a few days at Barbadoes, just long enough to increase our regret at leaving this beautiful little island, this garden of the Antilles, six days' sail brought us into the muddy water, which intimated our proximity to British Guiana. Though out of sight of land, the sea was of a dark brown colour, and the sounding lead showed that we were in shallow water with a mud bottom, still no land in sight, when, to the evident satisfaction of our captain and agent, we were hailed and boarded by a Demerary pilot. He told us we were not more than four or five miles from the nearest land, and in a short time we saw a long line of green bush and brushwood, which appeared to be growing out of the muddy water, looking rank and feculent. This was the coast near Mahaica; no rising ground, all quite flat, and the only objects were here and there the tall brick chimneys, which it is the fashion of Demerary to build to the steam engines attached to the boiling-houses, which were smoking away, and looking in the distance like so many steam-boats, as from the flatness of the country they appeared in the distance as rising from the sea.

Soon the light-house at Demerary rose in sight, and we dropped our anchor in the Demerary river, on the eastern embankment of which stands the capital of British Guiana, called by the Dutch "Staebrock," and by the English George Town. It is a large rambling wooden city, covering an extent of about three miles in length (from Camp-house, the Governor's, to the extremity of the suburb of Work en

Rust,) and spreading to about two miles in breadth. Excepting in Water-street (the Cheapside of Staebrock) the dwellings are not contiguous, but laid out in wide streets of separate wooden houses. On each side of the road (here called a dam) there is a canal or trench, filled with stagnant yellow water, and the houses all stand on the other side of this trench, so that every house has its own separate bridge which you must cross to enter. The houses all stand on brick pillars, which raise them from six to ten feet from the ground, so that you have to ascend a staircase to get to the front door. This is because the pestilent malaria, which is everywhere rising from the swampy ground, renders it quite poisonous to live on the ground floor—every house is therefore exalted on its brick pillars. Luckily hurricanes do not extend to the colony, or how these wooden dwellings would come tumbling down off their brick stilts!

There are three barracks in the town—Eveleary, York and Albany, and Fort William Frederick. The first is generally the head-quarters of a regiment; York and Albany is generally occupied by the left wing of a regiment from Berbice; and Fort William Frederick is garrisoned by the Royal Artillery. There is a splendid new Military General Hospital, which is, alas! two much needed. The barracks are good and all newly built, and far superior to what they used to be. Formerly men were crowded into miserable hovels, and it is no wonder they died of the yellow pestilence by the hundred; *now*, under the direction of that distinguished and talented officer Major-Gen. Sir Benjamin D'Urban, large and airy barracks have been built on well-chosen sites; the utmost attention is bestowed on the soldier's comfort and health in his lodging, messing, and clothing; excessive and harrassing drills and field-days are discountenanced and forbidden; and Demerary and Berbice are losing their fatal character as a military station. But this is not because the climate has improved, it is still probably the worst and sickliest in the world, but because the care and treatment of the army is better understood, and because Government have at length been convinced, that the saving of soldiers' lives (putting motives of justice and humanity out of the question) is a saving of money, and that it costs less to build good barracks than to recruit, instruct, and send out hundreds of men annually to fill up the places of those who used to fall victims to a mistaken system of economy. There are still, however, some mistakes committed under this mischievous notion, and I wish the head of the Medical Department could know that when he economises in physic he is wasting life. The only antidote to the intermittent fever and ague, so universal in this *tropical Walcheren*, is *sulphate of quinine;* this is unfortunately a very costly medicine, and military surgeons are cruelly restricted in its use by the wretchedly small quantities furnished them, and the fuss that is made if they venture to purchase it here for their hospitals when the niggardly supply is expended. This is too bad—but those who regulate these matters have never served here themselves, and they will not believe those who have.

Besides the military establishments I have enumerated, there are the posts of Fort D'Urban, Porter's Hope, and Mahaica, on the east coast of Demerary, each being a company's detachment; new barracks at Berbice for the head-quarters of a regiment, and calculated to contain

about three hundred men; and the outpost of "Fort Wellington," (a company's detachment) on the other side of the Berbice river.

Formerly there was a great deal of society in Demerary, but West India planters are not now what they used to be; and in addition to the evils of low prices for their sugar and coffee, their tempers have been much soured, and a feeling of hostility created towards the Mother Country by the orders in council, which are so frequently remodelling their slave laws. With the best intentions, I fear the anti-slavery people are doing mischief, and that they are forcing changes too rapidly on the negroes. Much good has been done, and was in progress, in the discipline and government of the slaves, and the gradual amelioration of their condition was proceeding so satisfactorily, that I was sorry to see a new code. It is now seventeen years since I served in Jamaica, and on comparing the present state of the slave population of British Guiana to what I recollect of Jamaica negro slavery in 1815, a prodigious improvement has taken place in their condition:—*then* the whip was taken to the field, not as an idle emblem of authority, but constantly applied to goad on the exertions of the working gang; then the flogging of women was as common as it was indecent and revolting, and acts of cruelty and oppression were not uncommon, and were passed over with little notice or reprehension:—*now*, in this colony, the whip has long ceased to be taken to the field; the persons of the females are protected by law; the hours of labour are abridged; and any act of cruelty would be visited both by the penalties of the law and the execration of society.

The garrison have suffered with the colonists by the decline of society. The dinners, the balls, the prodigal hospitality which used to be so universal, has nearly disappeared from the land. Last year too, the colony reduced one half of a colonial allowance called "Table money," which was granted by the Dutch, and continued by the English Government. This allowance was of great use to the junior ranks of the service, in enabling them to live decently and comfortably in this most expensive colony. The expense of messing is really dreadful, from the exceeding high price of provisions. I do not know how officers of the junior ranks, with the most rigid economy and self-denial, contrive to live on their pay. In addition to the unavoidable ills of the climate, to the fever and ague, to the mosquitoes, and to the sand flies, they have to encounter poverty and duns.

By the present system, as now established in the West India command, it seems that no more changes of stations are to take place, so that if a regiment has the ill fortune to come out to Demerary or Berbice, here they remain stationary till their period of West India service expires. This is done under the idea that the change from any West Indian island or colony to another, even if to a healthier, requires a fresh seasoning to the troops, and that loss of life is the consequence. My own experience is opposed to this notion, besides which the medical men with whom it originates, do not seem to have considered the *mental mischief* occasioned by this system—the dejection and weariness, the despondency and despair, which the prospect of eight or ten years' service in one spot in the West Indies, must occasion to the private soldier. To pass ten years (or till the fever carries him off to the grave-yard) between one barrack-room, one

parade ground, and one hospital ward,—this is all he has before him! Neither change nor variety to hope for, without society but that of his comrades, and no amusement or occupation,—he takes to drinking, reckless and hopeless, as his only consolation, and the grave soon terminates his miseries.

If the humane regulation of keeping regiments *only five years* in the West Indies had been adhered to, how many thousands of our poor fellows who now die more of despair, and from the habits this despair produces, than from any other cause, would keep up their spirits and endeavour to live prudently, in order to survive and return home, how much of the drunkenness and courts-martial which disgrace our West Indian army would disappear! Why was that merciful, that wise regulation abandoned, and our faulty depôt system substituted?

Σ.

RECOLLECTIONS OF A SEA LIFE.*

In the last Number of these Recollections, I have been led into a digression which made a leap over nine or ten years. I now return with pleasure to the happy days of the cock-pit. Capt. Hall's admirable "Fragments of Voyages," has drawn the veil from the common observation, which had been too long received upon authority, that "our school-boy years are the happiest of our lives." If I were to fix upon the happiest of mine, I should say the three last years of my time as a midshipman; and were I to select from that period the happiest days, I think they would be found in this winter, while our ship was in dock at Chatham. Our residence during this time was on board a hulk, whose "ruined walls" inclosed accommodation that was sadly deficient in that desideratum of an Englishman called comfort; but which, illuminated by a "purser's dip," that only made darkness visible, were lighted up by the gay and buoyant spirits within; so that, if the dismal appearance of our home was referred to, it was in some joke that served to enliven the scene, or to contrast it with the nice order of our own berth on board the B——. Yet there were marks which showed that midshipmen of taste and industry had been here before us. Where the cobwebs and patches of whitewash were broken away, there appeared glimpses of ornamental painting, that spoke of other times. But notwithstanding the brilliancy with which memory can burnish up the walls of the floating cells which could then supply us with a happy home, it will not be supposed that we were slow to quit it for the allurements of the shore. These were abundant, even at Chatham; but our vicinity to London put that world of fascination within our reach. I happened to have some friends there, as most people have who have any friends at all; and several times I managed to prolong a twenty-four hours' leave of absence to three or four days. The shorter term was all that the first Lieutenant, or even the Captain, had the power to grant, although the ship was in dock; but in such a case a tacit understanding was frequently given, that *they*

---

* Continued from page 42.

would not call the delinquent to an account who might break this strict rule of those busy times, provided that he first obtained this negative sort of consent.

"I wish to go to London for a few days, Sir?" "*I* cannot give you leave. Take care that the Admiralty do not call you to account." The chance of the Admiralty knowing the motions of a midshipman were readily encountered.

In the short interviews which these trips admitted of my having with young females of the civilized world, I fell into a fancy, under which I remained during the whole time of my active employment at sea. This was, that such young females were, actually and *bona fide*, angels. The brief mortality in this world of the fairest of God's creation, which at the age of eighteen we recognize in words only, has now been long too familiar to my conviction; but as regards all the other attributes, I have still the happiness of remaining under the delusion, if indeed it be one. In being led by the fascination of this alluring theory, I presume that I was under the same circumstances as many others of my brother officers, who in such short intervals, and even for some time after the war was ended, had too sublime an idea of the perfections of such beings, to feel themselves at home in their company, unless it happened to be with some young lady of a frank disposition, the intimate of a sister, perhaps; and then he was sure to fall in love; and sometimes to commit the egregious sin against the object of his attachment, of getting married to her; to say nothing of the sin he thus committed against Lord St. Vincent and His Majesty's service, by depriving the King of a good officer, and dividing that devotion which he owed to the navy alone, where in those stirring times he ought to have remained "all as one as a piece of the ship." I was fortunate enough never to think of incurring this climax of evil to a young naval officer; but of course I tumbled most profoundly into love on such occasions.

In one family of young ladies, whose frank and friendly manners had superseded that sublime veneration to which I have referred, there was one for whom it still remained. Some degree of relationship justified the intimacy, and the elder sisters freely kissed me at parting, considering me to be a boy, although I had ceased to think myself such. The youngest did not take advantage of this privilege of kindred. This sent me back to the ship with a heavy heart. I was not such a goose, however, as not to see that this omission might have arisen rather from diffidence than dislike; so I made up for it by banishing my own absurd share of the diffidence at a second leave-taking. But the good sense, or good feeling, or diffidence, or altogether, which prevented anything like a declaration of love, in this case, as in many others, preserved for me the friendship of the lady to the end of her life, which was terminated, but too soon, at the distance of thirty years afterwards.

I returned to my ship this time with a lighter heart, but still pensive enough, until the bustling duties of fitting out again came upon us. Our ship was now got out of dock. My station as a master's-mate called upon me for more exertion. The stir of these active occupations soon loosened the hold of the boyish dreams with which my fancy had been entangled, and prepared them to be washed off in the

first salt-water cruise we should encounter. Having touched upon this ticklish ground, it is now high time to be off to sea again. So up anchor, and let us proceed on our voyage.

There was no longer a Dutch fleet to blockade in the North sea. Our ship (a 64) was rather small for the line-of-battle that watched the French fleets. What was to be our next destination, was a question that interested us all. Orders to proceed to Spithead gave a prospect of something new; and orders, when there, to take under charge an outward-bound convoy of Indiamen, opened to the young and ardent imaginations on board, the expanse of the wide world, and the anticipation of many a brilliant scene, which, if then seen and enjoyed in the wildness of untutored hope, still preserve a fascinating, though a calmer charm in the mirror of recollection. It was in the beginning of May before our convoy were all assembled, and we then dropped down to St. Helen's with them to wait for a wind. Before we did this, our ship's company were paid their arrears of wages, and this pay-day went off with less disorder than the former. This time our friends, the Jews, were undisturbed in the exercise of their vocation, and by means of certain liquid elements, contained in small bladders enveloped in neat paper bags, and sold under the denomination of pounds of sugar, they had the power of inviting Jack to become their customer, and at the same time blinding him to the mystification of their accounts in a manner which made up for the losses sustained by their brethren at the Nore.

I ought to add, for the honour of Jack, that the bumboat-women, landladies, and all others who had trusted him, were duly remunerated before the remainder of his money went in this way. Many of these creditors had come round from Chatham for this purpose. I believe there was but one exception to their being all honestly and liberally paid. There was one fellow who made an objection to his account, in rather a Joe Miller sort of style. I am not sure whether Joe was before him, but he certainly stuck to his point with the gravity of an original. This was a Dutchman who had entered for our service. Having built rather largely upon his anticipated pay, he had made his visits to the bumboat-woman rather often—so that, besides the score for loaves of bread, red-herrings, sausages, and "*pounds of sugar,*" there appeared upon his account a considerable number of dittos. Now, he acknowledged to all the above-named articles, and paid for them fairly, but he declared most forcibly that he had never had any *dittos*, nor could he be brought to understand what the word meant by all the logic of the bumboat-woman, or those who advocated her cause.

Having assembled our convoy at St. Helen's, we rode out here a heavy gale of wind from the westward, after which, a wind partially fair brought us to Torbay, where we anchored to wait for a better. The gale I have mentioned had sent the Channel fleet in from off Brest; and the prevalence of westerly winds had detained squadrons and fleets bound to all parts of the world. To these numerous fleets of men-of-war and merchant-ships, were now added our superb convoy of about thirty Indiamen.

The Channel Fleet, which were in the habit of putting in here during westerly gales, in order to save tear and wear while the French could not get out of Brest, were always kept in perfect readiness to

sail "on the first *blush* of an easterly wind," according to the order of Lord St. Vincent, which commanded that no officer or man should sleep out of his ship. Amateurs from all parts of the kingdom used to assemble on the Berry-head to witness the departure of this fleet for the French coast, as they sailed majestically by that bold promontory, and so near to it, that the movements of those on board could be seen in making their evolutions.

It is said that sixty ships-of-the-line once sailed from Torbay together. I think that now was the time at which the congregated fleets I have mentioned contained that immense force, together with the splendid display of riches in the multitude of merchant ships. Next day the wind came fair, and those who were fortunate enough to be on the Berry-head at this time, saw the magnificent spectacle of those assembled fleets passing in review before them, as they sailed forth to proclaim the power and wealth of Britain in all parts of the world.

Passing the in-shore squadron off Ushant, who had been left to watch the French fleet in Brest, they stood out to communicate with their commander-in-chief; and we launched onward, leaving the Channel, and soon the European world, behind us. Night after night we continued to sink below the horizon stars which had been familiar to our view in their course all round the heavens, and to raise others which we had never seen; and exchanged the blustering elements that warred in the North Sea, and hourly called upon us for some harassing but healthful exertion, for the softer zephyrs, under which we rolled on, with sails, once trimmed, remaining in undisturbed serenity for the whole four hours. The midshipmen of the watch might be seen seated along by the lee-guns, sound asleep, fanned by the cool eddy wind from the mizen-stay-sail, under which they had walked shivering many a night in the North Sea—the mate of the watch sleeping as he walked the deck, until admonished of his error by breaking his shins on the gun-carriages; and the lieutenant almost following his example. We were now out of the track of all vessels but such as were going the same way as ourselves, and therefore not likely to meet; and as the blue expanse of water, over which we winged our way, though a sublime object, becomes somewhat monotonous to contemplate always, and as we are not always asleep in those lazy latitudes, notwithstanding the sleepy picture I have drawn; I say, as the glassy mirror of the deep becomes a monotonous study, we naturally turn our eyes to the objects reflected in it, and, like the Arabs of old, fix our attention upon the rising and setting stars, the moon, and planets, in their majestic march, until the orrery of the real heavens is formed in our heads, and referred to there with as much facility as the models which bear that name:—while the observations made upon the periods of these sublime revolutions, for the purpose of finding the ship's place upon the trackless ocean, add to this contemplative study all the interest of a continued series of experiments. Enhanced by the charms of novelty, these occupations mark one of the periods that form the "bright spots in memory's waste." The charm of novelty has long gone, but I have never yet been able to send a hand to the mast-head to look out for a point of land whose longitude had been well ascertained, without feeling some of that excitement which, I presume, is enjoyed by amateurs of a horse-race when two horses are running neck and neck; and

when the discovery of land confirms the minute accuracy of observations made upon the heavenly bodies to find its distance, I presume, the gratification of the observer may be not less than that of the winner at the race.

For the sake of young navigators, who have not yet set up in their heads the orrery of which I have spoken, I may mention a step which greatly facilitated the creation of it in my own. While we were yet in the northern hemisphere I soon got acquainted with the north star, and assuming him to be accurately in the pole, which is near enough to the truth for our purpose, I considered that all lines drawn from him, whatever direction they might have in relation to the points of our compass, north, south, east, or west, were south lines in the heavens and meridians of the sphere. The next step was to get well acquainted with three or four remarkable stars near the equator. This may be done by the assistance of a friend; but we were all young astronomers in the B——, and the old hands never became astronomers at all. I was therefore obliged to work out my acquaintance with these equatorial stars in the usual manner: by finding the time in the tables when they should come to the meridian, observing their altitudes, and comparing it with the known latitude. I took care to carry in my head the *degrees* of declination, and the hours and minutes of Right Ascension of the stars I had thus become acquainted with. Having made this progress, whenever I saw a remarkable star whose name I wished to know, I ran a line with my eye from the pole-star through it, and another line from the pole-star through that one of my known equatorial friends which lay nearest in the way. The angle made at the pole-star by the inclination of those two meridian lines gave me the difference of Right Ascension between the two others; and as I carried that of the known equatorial star in my head, I thus obtained this condition of the place of the other without going below for any reference or calculation. Still assuming the pole-star to be accurately in the pole, with a quadrant or sextant I next measured the angular distance from him to the one whose name I wished to discover. The arc of a *meridian* thus measured, furnished me with the complement of the declination of my new friend. Having this approximation to his place, I was enabled to enter the table of stars contained in our old friend John Hamilton More, and in it to find the name of the star I wanted.

The above loose method, abundantly inaccurate as a means of *fixing* the place of a star, I always found sufficiently near to *lead me to it*, assisted by the magnitude of the star. It had the advantage of being practicable at any time when I happened to be upon deck, without waiting until the star whose name I wished to find should come to the meridian. This he might not do in my watch, or, perhaps, not until some time in the daylight. I thus soon formed an acquaintance with all stars of the first and second magnitude; my acquaintance with them I took an opportunity of confirming afterwards in the usual manner, by taking their altitude when on the meridian, and noting the time of their being there. It is not alone in the case of a man walking without a head that the greatest difficulty lies in the first step. The commencement of an endeavour to acquire a knowledge of the stars, like the first view of an extensive museum, seems to present a task like that of unravelling the labyrinths of a wilderness; but as you go forward, fixed

points of reference are multiplied, which makes the rest easy to be acquired. We should have been much assisted in the above investigation of the heavens by a globe, or map of the stars, but we had no such thing on board; so, as I said, we made use of the real heavens instead of a model. If there was more difficulty in acquiring knowledge in this way, there was more ease in retaining it, according to the view held out by Mr. Bonnycastle, in the elegant and concise preface to his "Treatise on Algebra;" which preface, by the way, should be read by every youngster, whether his studies be mathematical or not. It is only six pages.

Having mentioned the name of our venerated friend John Hamilton More, I will not lose this opportunity of paying a tribute to his memory. His book contained the only good epitome of navigation at the time I speak of. The plan of it has since been superseded by practical *improvements*, and the useful tables it contained by others more accurate and recondite, particularly by Mendoza del Rio's having added to his truly scientific work the tables of common navigation; but our old friend John Hamilton More, whose picture, torn from its place opposite to the title-page, and ornamented with a cocked-hat and a pipe in his mouth, added by some aspirant in the fine arts, used to decorate the walls of the berth, must be venerated by every midshipman of the last century. But peace to his shade! He has had his day of fame. May this notice make his name immortal, which it cannot fail to do, standing in the pages of the United Service Journal.

Without always soaring in the heavens, there are objects of a deep interest in Nature wherever she presents herself. Among those which become apparent in these latitudes, is the teeming life of the ocean. This is made visible by the multitudes of flying fish frequently on the wing, pursued as they are by the larger fish: the skipping bonito; the dolphin, with his ever-varying hues of gold, purple, green, and orange; the large and muscular albicor, with his finely-pointed head, broad shoulders, and deep chest, and finely-tapering tail, made for strength and agility, springing through a flock of flying fish to a distance that gives the idea of his flying also, and carrying his victim along with him, or singling it out and bounding after it in a manner that would be delightful to those who are fond of coursing. To minds of a graver mood, it has suggested reflections on the unhappy lot of the smaller fish, which seem but to exist in a continued state of suffering, pursued by larger fish in the water, and attacked by birds when they take to the wing. I remember this reflection passing in my own mind, and it was not corrected until many years afterwards, when we lay in a harbour, the waters of which were, at that season, darkened by clouds of small fish. Through them the larger ones frequently dashed in after their prey, or sailed insolently among them; while the little ones darted off to all sides, and made a lane for their oppressors to pass. But I noticed that none of the debasing passions which follow the oppressions of mankind, and cause the unhappiness of the oppressor and the oppressed, prevailed here. The moment the danger was passed, they were again sporting and pursuing their own prey. So that my little friends were more in the situation of a soldier or a sailor, who consoles himself with the reflection that an inch of a miss is as good as a mile, and where the frequent repetition of impending danger

tends not to despondency or unhappiness, but on the contrary, calls forth that excitement which we may every day observe to be sighed for by retired veterans. I believe the love of such excitement to be so consonant to our nature, that even the fox-chase would lose all its charms if the necks of those who follow could be perfectly secured by their being carried up to the hounds in palanquins.

Every one remembers the observation of Charles XII. when he first heard the sound of musket-balls in the air. I remember a similar illustration of the feeling I have referred to in a young friend of my own. He was seated beside me in the stern sheets of a boat as we rowed up to an enemy's vessel. The first shot she fired was well aimed, and went close over the boat. The singing of a cannon-shot is intelligible enough, even to those who have not heard it before, and does not require the question which Charles put when he heard the more insidious whizzing of musket-balls. "What noise is that?" "From henceforth that shall be my music." My young friend jumped on his feet, and clapping his hands exultingly, exclaimed that "an enemy's shot had gone over his head" in a manner which indicated that all his school-boy hopes had been realised. Poor fellow! he did not live to enjoy the music long.

I had written this much on the flying fish before I read the remarks of Bishop Heber on the same subject, in the account of his voyage to India. That gentleman, led by his habits of piety and benevolence, has been induced to believe that the flying fish are not pursued when they fly out of the water; and he considers their flying to be no more an indication of their being so chased than the sporting of lambs in a field is an indication of their being attacked by serpents. The cases are not quite parallel, unless the serpents were as numerous as we can perceive the large fish to be; and unless also the lambs, swallowed in dozens, were known to be the natural food of the serpents, by being found in their stomachs.

We cannot shut our eyes to the existence of that which we mortals call evil, and the better way, perhaps, is to look at it in the face. That the flying fish do sport and play, and enjoy life, there is no doubt; and perhaps they sometimes rise out of the water in doing so. But in the course of many opportunities of observing, by years of sailing in those latitudes, I should be inclined to say that they did not generally fly to any considerable distance, unless when disturbed by the approach of a ship or of their enemies. It is true that the larger fish cannot always be seen; they are in the water, and often catch their victim as he falls; but I have seldom watched the flight of a flock of flying fish for any distance, without being able to detect a leap from some of their pursuers.

The view I have taken of the case, reduces the evil to the common lot of living nature; and if some seeming evil must exist in the parts, let us suppose, with Pope, that it is the least possible consistently with the excellence of the stupendous whole.

(To be continued.)

THE BRITISH CAVALRY ON THE PENINSULA.*

BY AN OFFICER OF DRAGOONS.

Montbrun having sent a patrol into Nava da Ver, retired. It had evidently been the sole object of the French, on this occasion, to make a reconnoissance, for had any thing farther been intended, they would have followed up their success, at least till they found something capable of offering an efficient resistance, and had they even scoured the country in front of their right, and which was totally unprotected, a great deal of baggage would have fallen into their hands. But they had probably gone beyond their original intentions in pursuing the Dragoons so far, as has been recorded in a former number.

The following day the cavalry, continuing its march, crossed the Coa, passing through the camp of the 52nd regiment, which was bivouacked on the left bank of the river. Probably that gallant corps was never in a situation in which it could have better set at defiance any cavalry attack than in this. In their front ran the Coa, passable by only one ford, from which the tortuous and rocky path did not admit of above two horses abreast. The steep banks, covered with brush-wood, confined horsemen to the narrow road, and we verily believe, that a single company of the 52nd would have repelled Montbrun with all his host; nevertheless, an absurd alarm was given during the succeeding night, and a report consequent on it led us for a moment to doubt the position was so inexpugnable. Having passed through the infantry camp, the cavalry had retired to a magnificent chesnut grove, about a mile and a half from the river, and in this delightful encampment felt in perfect security. There cannot be a more enchanting scene for a gipsy party than a Portuguese chesnut-grove; the majestic trees are covered by so thick a foliage as only to admit at intervals the rays of the meridian sun; the branches grow nearly horizontally at the height of about seven or eight feet, giving the appearance of a great green awning. We have a very pleasing recollection of such scenes, and of the dramas we have seen enacted in them:—the soldiers actively employed in their several avocations around the boles of the trees, to which their horses are attached by means of a forage cord encircling the tree; others at a fire in the neighbourhood cooking; parties passing to and fro with water or forage; the erect serjeant-major, with white gloves and rattan, walking about with circumspection. A few boughs hastily piled together in part, screen the simple toilet of an officer, who is preparing to enjoy his rice broth, as we may gather from the preparations his servant has made, by covering the canteen with a napkin, which seems intended to be occupied as a dinner-table by two performers, who are to be furnished with seats by the adaptation of bundles of forage. In the distance of this part of the scene, a Portuguese boy, with shining face, is seen blowing the fire and stirring the pot. The officer's servant is actively employed in waiting on his master, as well as attending to the horses and holding Antonio in surveillance, lest on the one hand, he allow the fire to go out, or on the other, the bishop to put his foot in the pot which contains the mess of

* Continued from page 464, Part I. 1832.

four or five hungry men; another actor in the dinner scene is just arriving from the village with a small skin of vino generoso—two quarts of which, (Imperial measure,) one raw, the second mulled, may very safely be put under the belt of any man after his day's work.

The writer of these lines had probably indulged to about this extent, and had early retired to what the Scotch call his naked-bed, anglicè, undressed to his shirt, a bag stuffed with straw acting as mattress, while a double blanket and sheet, in addition to the foliage of the chesnuts, sufficiently shielded from the night air in that lovely climate. He was in the temporary command of a troop. One of the serjeants of the troop commanded the camp guard: about one or two on the following morning, the latter awakened the writer, saying, with great agitation, "For God's sake, Sir, get up and form the troop; the French cavalry has charged your friends the 52nd, and is cutting them to pieces." Military men, and especially those who served in the light division, know how strong an attachment existed between the officers who had served in the different regiments of that brilliant corps. This sad intelligence came like a thunder-clap; two or three minutes sufficed to make the transfer from the naked bed to the back of a horse. About fifty of the troop were collected, and trotted off to the rendezvous on the high road. Here Gen. Slade was actively employed in getting his brigade mounted. The troops were coming to the road as they formed, when it occurred to all present that the French did their work very quietly, not a shot had been heard, and the most absolute silence reigned, although the night was clear and calm. It must be allowed that the General from the first expressed his surprise at the meekness with which the light division bore their cutting up, although he had been roused from sleep by this alarming intelligence.

The bearer of this report could not be found, but the guard declared that two or three men, nearly naked, had come to them and informed them that they had with difficulty escaped from the French cavalry, which had penetrated into the 52nd camp, and had destroyed the light division. Shortly after, an orderly who had been despatched by Gen. Slade, returned with the information that the whole alarm had arisen from the circumstance of some mules escaping from their tethers, which galloped over some of the sleeping soldiers, and had upset some piles of arms. Two or three of the soldiers who had been thus roughly treated arose from their lairs, and running through the camp spreading alarm, continued their course till they arrived at the Dragoon bivouac. The alarm was not known to a great part of the division till the following morning. We have ventured to place this little matter in our simple narrative. It may be amusing to the general reader, while the military man cannot be too frequently warned of the disastrous consequences which may arise from panic; and the foregoing anecdote is at least one proof of the facility with which it is generated.

A very successful and brilliant affair of cavalry occurred a few days after the battle of Albuera, which we have the opportunity of giving by a quotation from a French military writer, and which is as follows:

Lapène, Conquête de l'Andalousie.—page 180.

"Le Général Latour Maubourg, réuni le 24, à la division Godinot, au-dessus de Villa Garcia, reçoit du Général-en-chef l'ordre de se porter en avant sur Usagré, et de faire replier les postes ennemis. Usagré est située à deux

lieux et demie de Villa Garcia, dans une plaine coupée et boisée. Au pied d'une soumité, sur laquelle repose ce village, coule une petite rivière dont les bords sont escarpés et difficilement accessibles. Un pont est jeté sur cette rivière au bas d'Usagré. Il sert de passage au chemin de Los Santos, de Ribeira, et de la Basse Estramadure. L'ennemi avoit reconnu une position favorable, sur le revers d'un monticule placé en regard du village, de l'autre côté de la rivière: Il y place 12 a 1500 chevaux. Cachée par le terrain, cette cavalerie ne doit paraître et agir qu'au moment où les avant postes, forcés de ceder le terrain, se replieront sur Usagré et le dépasseront ensuite.

" Le Général Latour Maubourg veut s'assurer avant d'occuper ce point si l'ennemi en a évacué les environs: il ordonna, en conséquence, au Général Briche de se porter avec sa cavalerie legère, par un long détour laissant Usagré à gauche vers la rivière; de franchir ensuite le ravin dans un endroit où il présente peu d'escarpements, et d'éclairer notre droite. L'exécution de ce mouvement, exige du temps, à cause des difficultés du terrain. Sans attendre cependant que le Gen. Briche paraisse de l'autre côté du ravin, les 4e et 20e de dragons, qui forment la tête de la division Latour Maubourg, traversent la village déjà abandonné par l'ennemi; le Gen. Bron à leur tête, ils descendent la rampe qui conduit au pont, et passent brusquement sur la rive gauche; mais à peine le 4e a-t-il mis le pied sur cette rive, que les Anglais débouchent avec impétuosité de derrière le coteau qui les a jusque-là tenus cachés. Le Gen. Bron fait dès ce moment avec le 4e le plus vigoreux efforts pour contenir l'ennemi.

" Le 20e de dragons se porte sans délai au secours des escadrons engagés, avec autant de promptitude que le passage du pont, où les chevaux ne peuvent pas défiler que par deux, le permet, mais ces deux régimens qui réunis comptent moins de 700 chevaux, sont hors d'état de résister à la cavalrie ennemie, trop supérieure en nombre, et se replient vers le pont. Le 26e de dragons (même brigade) descend aussi la rampe, dans le dessein de porter secours aux troupes compromises, et présente la tête de sa colonne sur le pont, tandis que celles-ci fortement ramenées s'y pressent pour repasser la rivière. Cette position est rendue encore plus critique par l'artillerie Anglaise, tirant à mitraille sur nos régimens agglomérés en avant de ce défilé: 3 pieces d'artillerie Hollandaise au service de France, mises en batterie à la droite d'Usagré, ne peuvent neutralizer le feu du canon enemie, qui occupe une position plus avantageuse. Les 4e et 20e hors d'état de pouvoir repousser les Anglais et même de se dégager, se replient à la fin, ou plutôt se dispersent dans les jardins en avant du village. Le Général Latour Maubourg termine cependant ce combat inégal en préscrivant au Général Bouvier-d'éclats de faire mettre pied à terre au 14e de dragons le 1re de la 2e brigade, et de la disposer en tirailleur pour chasser l'ennemi des jardins. Les Anglais sont arrêtés, en effet, par cette mesure, et reprennent bientôt après la position qu'ils occupaient avant le combat, tandis que les 4e et 20e de dragons dégagés aussi, rejoignent leur division. Le Colonel Farine du 4e resta au pouvoir de l'ennemi; 400 dragons et autant de chevaux avaient eté écharpés ou pris," &c.

We really are apprehensive that any remarks we can make upon this long extract, will do little towards strengthening the claim of Gen. Lumley and his cavalry to the highest meed of praise. The French statement seems to be a very fair one. We were not with that part of the army, and do not happen to have any detailed account of the action, nor of the loss accruing from it on the part of the British. Let it be observed that the French writer estimates the British force at 12 to 1500: it is not worth our while to dispute the number; it must, however, be granted, that the Frenchman must have done justice to his countrymen in not underrating the force opposed to them.

He must be supposed to be correct in his statement of the French force, which he states to have been the division Godinot, which, however, had no opportunity of taking a share in the action, and probably was not within reach of Usagré at the time; but that three brigades of cavalry, the two heavy brigades of Bron and Bouvier-d'eclats, and the chasseur brigades of Briche, were present and employed, there can be no doubt.

The French brigades were usually very strong, and it would be a very moderate calculation to suppose that they had a force of 3000 cavalry. There can be no doubt that had the whole of this force been properly directed against Gen. Lumley, he must have retired, or probably would have suffered severely had he been induced to engage with double his numbers. The General, seeing that the French began to pass the bridge while Gen. Briche was at too great a distance to admit of his lending any assistance, allows one brigade to pass the river, and by an impetuous charge breaks the enemy, and throws them completely into confusion; and having destroyed or taken 400 of the enemy, he is driven from the remainder of his prey by the fire of a fresh regiment of dragoons, who are dismounted on the opposite bank, and are enabled to push off the British dragoons, without being exposed to any danger whatsoever.

The French writer lays a good deal of stress on the services rendered by our artillery. We have no doubt that whatever bravery and skill could accomplish, was done by Capt. Lefevre's troop on this as on every other occasion, but as this troop was the whole amount of that arm which the British had at Usagré, we cannot believe but Latour Maubourg must have had a larger artillery force on this occasion, as we see that he had three brigades of cavalry: he could not have left himself so unprovided with artillery, as to be bullied by five light six-pounders and one light howitzer. The truth must be, that the French, seeing the Colonel, Farine, had taken his grist to a bad mill, and expecting the English dragoons to cross the river, sent away their artillery, which would have impeded the retreat of their troops, and perhaps might have become the spoil of the enemy. Gen. Lumley had to congratulate himself on a most daring and completely successful attack upon a superior enemy, commanded by an officer of the greatest distinction. Latour Maubourg had separated his force, and attempted to pass a defile without clearing his front. He had transgressed the rules of war and of posts, with which he was no doubt most conversant; but it is impossible to applaud too highly the conduct of the British General, who at once detected the errors of his opponent, and effectually took advantage of the favourable position he was placed in. Gen. Lumley's conduct can only be appreciated by those who have witnessed cavalry affairs, and who know, therefore, how much promptitude is required, and that whatever calculations were previously made, or whatever arrangements the most watchful foresight may have suggested, still the relative circumstances are continually changing. On this occasion a very few minutes' delay might have allowed the whole of Gen. Bron's brigade to pass the bridge, and if thus Bron had been able for a time to repel the British attack, Gen. Bouvier-d'eclats (what a name for a sharpshooter!) instead of acting *en tirailleur*, would have found means to get his brigade across the stream, (for

such it was, and not a river,) either by the bridge or at some other place, where the banks were accessible; Gen. Briche would have come up, and the British would have been in a precious mess.

We frequently hear of chess as a military game, and although it is a game we have long cultivated, we must deny, at least, that it at all tutors the mind for affairs of posts. In chess the player may take as much time as he pleases, whereas prompt decision is the desideratum in active warfare. If chess is to teach anything, it must be restricted to strategy. Practice alone can make an officer perfect in this work; but occasionally, even when the commander has not been habituated to such scenes, if he is possessed of great determination, and has confidence in his soldiers, he may, by putting on a good countenance, and by acting with vigour and promptitude, taking advantage of any circumstances which are favourable to him, gain an advantage over a superior enemy before his opponent has time to ascertain his force, and to extricate himself from the difficulties which he is thrown into by the successful attack made upon his advanced guard.

The whole of the cavalry followed Lord Wellington to the south, where the army remained till the end of July, when it returned to the neighbourhood of Ciudad Rodrigo. During this period we do not recollect any cavalry action. The French were everywhere superior to the British cavalry in point of number.

Marshal Marmont having collected a large force, advanced to the relief of Rodrigo. A splendid affair occurred at El Bodon on the 25th of August, when Gen. Picton's division not only repelled, but actually charged an immense host of French cavalry. The small body of British cavalry made several gallant charges, and their conduct was highly applauded; but as the French had 4000 horsemen while the British cavalry did not exceed 400 or 500, little could be expected from them, and no doubt they owed their safety to the gallantry of the infantry. Many accounts have been published of this affair, and the gallant conduct of Picton's division, and, especially on this occasion, of Colville's brigade, cannot be too frequently held up to the admiration of the army. But what were the French doing? they had 4000 cavalry, a numerous artillery, and for a long time they were only opposed by a single brigade of infantry, three squadrons of dragoons, and four guns. Surely, had their attack been energetic and repeated, they must have swallowed up this gallant band. The country is open, and peculiarly suited to cavalry movements; yet all the French accomplished, was, to give the opportunity to Colville's brigade to achieve fresh honours, and to set an example which was of advantage to the whole British army. Shortly after the affair of El Bodon, we had an opportunity of seeing a great deal of the 5th regiment, which took a prominent share in the glory of that day; we saw officers and private soldiers who had been wounded by grape-shot while in square,—they spoke highly of the conduct of the French cavalry officers, one of whom would not surrender though left quite alone.* Now, this is all very well, but what does it imply? that the French cavalry officers were brave. We willingly allow such to be the case, and to add that on all occasions they showed the greatest courage, and set a good ex-

* The anecdote, from a different source, is given in our last Number. *Vide* Traits and Incidents, p. 229.—Ed.

ample to their men, who nevertheless, as on this occasion, frequently left them alone. The British cavalry seldom gave their officers such opportunities of showing their bravery. The following day, Marmont assembled an overpowering force in front of Fuente Guinaldo, and Lord Wellington withdrew his army during the night, and retired to Aldea de Ponte. After passing the frontier of Spain, the country becomes quite unsuited to cavalry.

A great deal has been said of the inferiority of the French horse, and unquestionably he is a low-bred animal, for which very reason he is the more able to endure the hardships to which the horses of light cavalry are exposed. The French horse, generally, trots well, and is sure-footed; on the retreat from Guinaldo, the writer of these pages was followed by a small party of Lancers, and near Peubla d'Agava one of them deserted to him, and was immediately sent to head-quarters, escorted by a well-mounted dragoon. The Frenchman started at a banging trot, keeping his friend at a hard gallop; and had he not been called to and requested to moderate his pace, he would most assuredly have done up the heavy ere they had accomplished the two or three miles to Aldea de Ponte. The writer purchased a horse taken at Fuentes d'Onore from the 5th Hussars; it was a little horse, but quite as fit to carry a light weight as many of our horses. The writer is no feather weight; the Frenchman carried him well, was good in all his paces, and after doing good service became the charger of the Assistant-Surgeon.

Having now brought my sketch of the British cavalry on the Peninsula to a period, for the present, I beg to notice two letters which have appeared in the Journal. Respecting the one from Colonel Brotherton:—with reference to the charge of the 14th Light Dragoons, in which Colonel Talbot fell, I can only say that having frequently heard accounts of that affair, I had the opportunity of having my memory refreshed by an intimate friend, a highly esteemed officer of the rifle brigade, from whom I received pretty much the same account as I had heard on previous occasions. Let it not be supposed that I at all place my hearsay evidence in comparison with Colonel Brotherton's account of the affair in which he appears to have taken so prominent a part; and I take the earliest opportunity of pointing the attention of the readers of the United Service Journal to the first letter in the General Correspondence, of No. XLI. I had assumed the existence of artillery in the neighbourhood, as I have scarcely ever seen so large a force unaccompanied by guns. Infantry was at hand, and Colonel Brotherton has happily expressed himself, that it was a charge inconsiderately executed. Perhaps I had gone too far in saying that it was inconsiderately planned. The other letter which takes notice of my paper, is signed "An Impartial Reporter of British Cavalry." I have no doubt of the correctness of his journal, from which an extract is given; I had no intention to detract from the merit of any portion of the cavalry, and least of all, from Gen. Slade's brigade. Not having been in the Peninsula at the time of Lord Wellington's retreat, I obtained an account of the affair of Alcoentré from a very able hand, part of which is given in my sketch as the work of another hand. It is now before me, and I cannot see what is wrong. It is true that Gen. Slade's brigade is not mentioned in the account I have given. The journal of the "Impartial Reporter" mentions that Gen. Slade came

galloping up, and ordered forty men to mount, &c. but it does not mention that these forty men took any share in the fight, nor do I see anything else in the journal which militates against my sketch. Having headed my papers with the title of British Cavalry on the Peninsula, I have thought it necessary to mention many affairs which occurred while I was absent from the Peninsula, that something of an appearance of continuity might be preserved. Having been promoted into another regiment, I left the Peninsula after the siege of Ciudad Rodrigo, and I did not return to Lord Wellington's army till the spring of 1813; it is therefore my intention to resume the account of the British cavalry from the commencement of the Vittoria campaign, and as the highly interesting intervening period will probably be filled up by others, I propose to distinguish my papers by the signature of,

SAMOHT.

NOTES FROM VAN DIEMEN'S LAND.

ACCORDING to my promise, I have thrown together a few hasty notes from my journal. Without farther preface, I shall at once commence with an endeavour at a description of the first land we made, after our departure from Old England, which was the small island of Porto Santo. As the ship passed within a few miles of the shore, I had a tolerably good view of it. It appears to be a barren rocky island about twelve or fifteen miles in length, with two remarkable conical-shaped hills at the extremities, from which the land slopes gradually down to the centre, the lowest part visible from the sea; a few straggling houses and a small church are built on this plain, and here and there a patch of green shows some attempt at cultivation, but whether of vines or of cabbages, I was too far off to distinguish.

After passing Porto Santo, a few hours' sail with a light though steady breeze, brought us to the far-famed island of Madeira. How shall I describe to you in adequate terms, what appeared to me the most enchanting scenery I had ever beheld?—rocks in every variety of shape rising from a sea clear and blue as the azure sky above our heads—mountains clothed from the base to the very summit with vineyards, the light verdure of whose foliage strongly contrasted with the reddish yellow colour of the soil which in many places showed itself. Nor were human habitations wanting to give an appearance of life and civilization to the scene; villas and cottages were thickly strewed over the less precipitous parts of the island, and here and there a convent rose in solitary seclusion, displaying a black cross on its whitened front. The ship was steered into the bay of Funchal, and brought to opposite the town bearing the same name, which is built in a semicircular form round the bay, and extends back some distance on the sloping sides of a ravine, into which the mountain immediately above and behind the town is divided. A signal was hoisted at our mast-head for a boat to come off with fruit and vegetables, but although the lazy rascals of Portuguese must have observed our signal, no boat from the shore approached us: so after waiting in vain for about an hour, and as you may well suppose heartily cursing all and each of the

boatmen of Funchal and its vicinity, we once more stood to sea, and bade adieu to Madeira, without having tasted its grapes or landed our letters. Before the sun had sunk to rest, all traces of this beautiful island had disappeared, and full three months were to elapse ere, with the exception of a distant view of the island of Palma, one of the Canaries, and a small island, or rather a large rock, in the southern ocean, called St. Paul's, we were again to be gladdened with a sight of terra-firma.

When you look on the map, and track me over half the world of waters that separate us, you will think so much space could not have been sailed over without encountering the many hair-breadth escapes and moving perils that in the imaginations of "Ye Gentlemen of England" are inseparable from a sea-voyage; and as you wished particularly for the description of a storm, I will try and conjure up one for your gratification.

Well then, shift the scene, darken the stage, and suppose yourselves somewhere in the great Southern Ocean after rounding the Cape of Good Hope. There 's plenty of sea-room in all conscience; however, I must draw yet more largely on your imagination. You are, then, to suppose that the good ship has been running for some time before a spanking breeze, accompanied by not more than the usual inconveniences that attend a lightly laden convict ship; for whatever may be the burthen of the crimes on each prisoner's back, and some, no doubt, weigh heavily enough, they make not one inch difference in the vessel's draught of water, so that she has nothing but her ballast to steady her as she rolls and tumbles on her course through a heavy sea;—and that to-day the wind has freshened, and one sail after another has been taken in to ease the masts and save the owner's canvass; the sun has set amidst a bank of dark and dense clouds fast coming up astern; the sky in every part of the heavens looks wild and threatening; the sea follows after the ship in towering waves, which roll on in mountain majesty; over head a scud is drifting with fearful velocity—all this forebodes but too plainly an approaching storm. Now look on our deck and see what preparations are making to contend with it.—*Imprimis*, the carpenter (whose importance on board ship runs in an inverse ratio to the fall of the mercury in the barometer, sure sign of bad weather,) is over the side knocking in the ports to those apologies for windows, which in fine weather are allowed to remain open, admit sufficient light into the cabins to make darkness visible, and fresh air enough to make you long for more, but in such weather as I am now endeavouring to bring before your imagination, are always closed by thick wooden ports driven in from the outside, light and air being thus completely excluded. The captain appears on deck in his south-wester; the main-sail is stowed, the spanker brailed up, and men are lying out on the yards, double reefing the main and foretop-sails. Thus the ship is stripped for the expected contest with the elements, and not too soon, for even now their fury is let loose upon her. A dense mass of clouds rising from where the sun had set, had gradually overspread the heavens, leaving however sufficient light to see, as sailors say, the squall coming. It approaches like a thick impenetrable veil stretched over half the heavens, its lower edge resting on the sea, which, lashed into foam, forms no bad representation of a richly fringed border; a whistling

sound is heard through the rigging,—if in a sentimental mood you may fancy it a sigh, such as "young hearts breathe when love's first dream is nigh," or such as "older hearts heave to find it—alas!" "Mind your weather helm," shouts the captain to the man at the wheel. The ship seems to pause and tremble for one moment's space, then as the furious blast strikes on her diminished sails, rushes like a headstrong courser madly forward, dashing aside the water from her bows, and as she plunges over the opposing billows buries now one side then the other deep in their bosom, and still borne swiftly onward, leaves behind the short-lived track where foam and ripple mark her fierce struggle with the ocean. But, as Byron says,—

> "Pass we the gale, the calm, the change, the tack,
> And each well-known caprice of wave and wind,
> Till on some jocund morn to land! and all is well."

It was, then, on some jocund morn, when at a cheer from the forecastle all eyes were strained to catch the first glimpse of land, which none but the practised eyes of a sailor could have distinguished to be other than a cloud in the horizon. A favourable wind, however, by quickly decreasing our distance from it, soon dispelled all doubts, when seen in strong relief, through a clear transparent atmosphere, rose the south west cape of Van Diemen's Land, frowning over its ocean bed in solitary grandeur, seeming to bid defiance alike to the ravages of time, and to the boisterous, never-ceasing assaults of the waves at its base, and so roughly formed of Nature's most solid and substantial masonry that you might wonder how, even from afar, it could have appeared the shadowy cloud we first beheld it. During the day as we were sailing very near the shore, I observed the whole of the coast to be bold and rocky, here a tremendously high cliff or mountain, there a deep cleft or ravine, disdaining all order or uniformity, and seeming to have been formed by some terrible convulsion of nature as an impassable barrier to the ever-rolling waters of the great Southern Ocean. Such was our first view of the southern coast of Van Diemen's Land, affording, in truth, no very cheering prospect; and I can well imagine many a voluntary exile whom necessity has driven to renounce his native land and seek better fortunes on this side the globe, to have experienced a sinking of the heart when these rough cliffs first met his gaze, so unlike the verdure-crowned shores of his father-land. What might have been the feelings of the convicts who crowded the fore part of our deck, eager to catch a sight of the country that was to be to many of them that bourne from whence they were sentenced never to return, I shall not attempt to divine, but this iron-bound coast must have brought the reflection that escape was hopeless.

What were the feelings of the soldiers, their guard? Joy at the prospect of speedily getting on shore, was growled forth in English, asserted in Scotch, and almost shrieked and quite sworn to in Irish. The following night we had beat round Tasman's Head, the extreme point of land on the south-eastern coast of the island; and on the next morning going on deck, I experienced a pleasure only to be duly appreciated by those who have passed week after week on the ocean, with no object save its ever shifting though unchanged face for the eye to rest on, as it roves over its dreary waste of waters: day after day, in-

deed, glides away in a sort of dreary existence; and the shadows that flit across the mind in these watery dreams at sea, are fantastic as the foam, and evanescent as the bubble formed by its billows. We were in Storm Bay, at the entrance of the river Derwent, the weather mild, clear and beautiful; the unruffled waters of the bay completely belied its name; on our left, or to use a more seamanlike expression, on our larboard-quarter, Tasman's Head, which we had passed in the night, was still visible, a fellow giant in size and height to the south-west cape, still nearer, stretching wide on our beam by Bruin's Island, thickly covered with wood, and presenting a wild pictureque assemblage of rocks, intermixed with trees of a gigantic growth, and shrubs in inextricable confusion. The shore, which hitherto had been bold, perpendicular and rocky, as we approached towards the northern extremity of the island, suddenly curved inward, forming a deep well-sheltered bay; and as I remarked that its sandy beach held out a prospect of good anchorage and easy landing, I was told that this was Adventure Bay, and that it was here Cook had found a safe harbour for his vessels when led by the spirit of enterprise to the discovery of these remote regions. On our right, too, the shore presented a steep and rocky aspect, offering to our view a succession of perpendicular lofty cliffs; then the land rises to a great height and terminates abruptly towards the sea in another towering head-land, called Cape Raoul; beyond it Cape Pillar was just discernible, and Tasman's Island in the far distance.

We now entered the mouth of the river Derwent, which, as I before observed, discharges itself into Storm Bay. This is a beautiful river, its breadth varies from two to three miles, its shores in some places high and rugged, in others sloping gradually down to the water's edge, thickly covered with wood, which is here and there cleared away, and a greener patch of a few acres in extent, and a low-roofed little hut or cottage, mark the solitary dwelling of some poor settler. On sailing farther up the river, these openings or clear spaces in the surrounding forest became more frequent and of a greater extent, and the cottages increased in size and appeared more habitable. This, and the sight of shipping lying snugly at anchor, gave evidence that we were approaching the haunts of man; and now we could descry the roofs of many houses just visible above the crest of a ridge of land, which bore unequivocal marks that man had here asserted his dominion over nature; it was clear of timber, in part cultivated, and on the extreme point projecting into the river was a low turf-covered battery of earth, that would have looked formidable but that its gaping embrasures showed a beggarly account of empty gun-carriages. Having passed this peaceful fortification, the shore on the left recedes, the river opening into a wide and beautiful expanse of water, and Hobart, the capital of Van Diemen's Land, situated on the curved shore of this bay, at the foot of a majestic mountain, whose sides were clothed with wood and whose summit the clouds had hidden, lay in sunshine before us. We dropped our anchor amongst several other ships, and amidst the bustle and excitement of getting on shore I must drop my pen, with a promise to resume it, and send you more notes the first opportunity.

OBSERVATIONS UPON NAVAL ARCHITECTURE OR CONSTRUCTION.

BY CAPT. W. SYMONDS, R.N.

THE growing importance of the science of Naval Construction, and the various modifications it is undergoing and may yet be subject to, induce us to place before our readers the following practical essay by one of the most eminent existing Professors of that science.—ED.

To the Editor of the United Service Journal.

SIR,—The few pages which comprise this little tract, were printed eight years since, at the desire of my friends. I did not then imagine that I should have been brought into public notice as a naval architect, but those friends were the means of my first constructing the Columbine, eighteen-gun sloop; then the Pantaloon, ten-gun brig; and the present naval administration have ordered me to construct the Vernon frigate, of fifty guns; the Vestal frigate, of twenty-six guns; the Rover corvette, of eighteen guns; the Snake and Serpent, sixteen-gun brigs; and the Pandora packet; in all of which I have put to the test the argument of the tract. I have endeavoured to combine stability, capacity, velocity, and strength, without sacrificing beauty. The judgment of practical naval men must decide whether I have made any improvement in the system of naval construction.

The Pantaloon, which I presume has been satisfactorily tried aud approved of, furnishes me with a minimum to my scale: I have only to hope that the Vernon will produce a maximum, upon which scale vessels of any size may in future be proportionately formed upon the same principle. I have only to add, that as I desire to have the full credit of my principle if successful, (as it is borrowed from no other source,) so I am prepared to acknowledge my error if failure awaits me. I shall have the pleasure of forwarding to you the principal elements of these vessels according to your desire.

I am, Sir, your obedient, humble servant,

W. SYMONDS, Captain R.N.

Woolwich Dockyard, May 25th, 1832.

THIRTY years' experience in the Naval service, wherein few have surpassed the writer in enthusiasm and avidity to gain a theoretical and practical knowledge of the profession, encourages him to advance a few observations, queries, and remarks on the subject of Naval Architecture or Construction; and the consideration that any subject so nearly connected with the vital interests of Great Britain, as her "wooden walls," ought to create some attention, and deserves, at least, a fair, impartial, and unprejudiced consideration, tempts him to proceed.

It is by no means singular to consider British-built ships inferior in form to those of France, Spain, and the United States, and by no means superior to those of any other maritime nation; whereas it appears natural to infer, that from having so much more practice in a navy so numerous as is ours in comparison with that of any other nation, we ought to have learned the principle of excelling in the art of naval construction, as we have in other works of science and ingenuity; and that our long experience would have produced vessels as superior in form, symmetry, beauty, and capacity, as ours are beyond all others in point of materials and workmanship. In that case we should most assuredly meet the enemy upon a different footing, and then would the courage and tactics of British seamen find a certain field for their display. A small good-sailing fleet, from choice of position and the celerity of its movements, would be an overmatch for superior numbers; and single cruisers would clear the seas of fast-sailing privateers. We should no longer

hear of that dismay and disappointment which are too often and too fatally the results of bad sailing, for the unworthiness and inability of a vessel upon bad principle, are both disgusting to the officers and crew destined to sail in her.

Having so far ventured to reflect on this interesting and important subject, it is natural to expect that a reason should be assigned for the opinions resulting therefrom; and a statement of those evils from whence the calamity is deducible, which is attributable to two circumstances,—the first, an imperfect manner of ascertaining the tonnage,* and secondly, the duty on tonnage:† the evasion of which proves that the method of calculating it is vague and erroneous; and the comparison of our forms and dimensions with vessels of those nations who have no duty on tonnage, and whose mode of admeasurement differs from ours, confirms the assertion.

To those persons whose partiality and prejudice in favour of what is at present the system, and what has been formerly the case, blinds them to improvement, even where it is as evident as noon-day; and to those whose interest it is to adhere to the present erroneous system, whose vessels are already constructed preposterously, for the very purpose of evading the tonnage-duty, these observations are not addressed.

It may be demanded why the manner in which merchant-vessels are constructed should at all interfere with, or affect the formation of men-of-war? It is obvious that where vessels are built in merchants' yards, upon no other principle but strength, and to carry more than they register, the master-shipwright, the assistant, the foreman, labourer, and the apprentice, become wedded to the mode which prevails, prejudice and custom unite to fix them in that style, which they (the artificers) do not prove by practice and personal observation at sea, but they learn

---

* "In what is stated relative to construction, however, a considerable fallacy, I am informed, prevails, so that the difference of foreign and British building, in regard to expense, is far from being as great as at first sight appears: this is owing to the mode by which the charge is computed, which is on the tonnage. The tonnage of the British ship, I understand, is computed by her registered measurement; that of the foreign one by her actual capacity. It is known that the capacity of the British ship exceeds by one-third, and frequently much more, the registered tonnage; and for this difference, therefore, a deduction should be made per ton in calculating the nominal expense of her building, which at once reduces the comparative expense per ton in that proportion."—*Vide* Speech in the House of Commons, by the Right Hon. T. Wallace, Vice President of the Board of Trade, and Chairman of the Committee.

† "It has been usual to make a comparative estimate between the cost of British and foreign ships, according to the rate per ton, without referring to the fact that abroad the measured tonnage of a ship represents her burthen, whereas according to our mode of admeasurement, a vessel built in this country of 150 tons register, and by which tonnage the price for building is agreed upon, will burthen about 220 tons, being nearly one-half more than her register tonnage. Vessels of a larger description burthen more in proportion to their tonnage than that already stated. I have known vessels of 400 tons register carry mixed cargoes of 800 tons. It is a curious fact, that a ship which was in the port of London, was put into dock for the purpose of being raised upon, so as to increase her capacity of stowage; before going into dock admeasured more than after she had been raised upon, although by those means she acquired the capacity of carrying nearly 100 tons more than she could have done previously to such alteration: on re-survey she measured less when she came out of dock, than under her old register, though 100 tons larger.

"The mode of admeasurement in this country is frequently attended with serious consequences; for with the avoiding the payment of the heavy rates, dues, and port-charges, we latterly have been in the habit of building vessels long, narrow, and deep in their holds; which peculiar construction makes a vessel of comparatively large burthen, small in admeasurement. The effect of that mode of building is, that ships when deeply laden, find it difficult to beat off a lee shore, nor can they stand without ballast. The pressure of the lofty masts and taunt rig requisite for a vessel so constructed, makes a ship less durable, as the wear and tear is greatly increased. They are also liable to heavy charges, not being able to shift without ballast."—*Vide* Hall's Observation on the Navigation Laws.

that the purpose of the proprietor is fully answered. These really excellent workmen are, or may be introduced into the King's yards, where possibly they will become master-shipwrights, and be promoted to be Surveyors of the Navy, (an office described by the French as that of Ingénieur Constructeur,*) and what will probably be the consequence, beauteous models present themselves of foreign invention and construction, which in comparison to persons thus brought up appear too fine, too broad, and in real fact in every way far beyond the conception and comprehension of those who have not studied and proceeded upon principle; but who content themselves with following the old beaten path, owing to which great misfortune, the most precious works of first-rate masters† are doomed to be broken up, that they may not appear as foils to the awkward forms of veritable British bottoms.

All the navy have observed futile attempts to imitate some of these inimitable models, but have rarely or never seen a perfect similarity, and very seldom a tolerable one: some improvement, as it has been termed, has at once destroyed the principle of the imitation. It is also as well known, that vessels with different capacities, upon diametrically opposite principles, but because their dimensions of length and breadth, and even because their number of guns nearly assimilate, are (without any regard to properties or to formation) too often jumbled together in one heterogeneous classification; and are unhappily doomed to the same masts and yards, the same sails, stores, ballast, tanks, casks, provisions, and number of men.

Those forty line-of-battle ships, all of similar description, known in the service by the name of "The Forty Thieves," are sad instances of deformity, it must be allowed, and it is only justice to declare it, although it may perchance happen, that one of these ships, all or either of them, may be found in some rare, very solitary instance, to do their duty well, and may even prove on that occasion, from a head sea, a calm, or a casualty that rarely happens, as good as the finest and most perfect model; that would be a poor recompense for behaving and sailing ill every other day in the year. It may not be inconsistent here to advert to a more modern invention, or what, it is said, is intended to be an improvement upon the eighteen-gun brig, and which has come under the observation of the writer. The Martin sloop-of-war having injured her fore foot by striking upon a rock in the Archipelago, was hove down at Malta, and to the great surprise of professional understanding persons, required eighteen tons of iron ballast in her after end to effect the object, which quite reverses the principle in construction of the fish form, or full entrance and fine run. The officers belonging to her stated, that it was intended she should sail eighteen inches deeper in the water bodily than it was possible to effect, and that her best sailing trim is eighteen inches by the head, instead of eighteen inches by the stern, as intended by the projector: her line of

---

* "Science de L'Ingénieur Constructeur."—*Vide* Encyclopédie Méthodique, 1783.

† M. Duhamel du Monceau, who published a much-esteemed practical treatise on Naval Construction in 1752, encourages invention founded upon principle, and considers the practice of many calling themselves constructors, (alluding to those who waste their attention upon copying models which are even considered and esteemed as good ones,) as servile and mechanical; recommending the constructor to make use of his own reason, physically and mathematically, before he produces his plan: that he must make himself acquainted with solids and fluids, and that he should combine all objects; so that in gaining desirable qualifications, he must be careful not to occasion bad ones. The work in question, and a treatise on ships by M. Bouguer, proved highly beneficial to the students of Naval Architecture in France, insomuch that at the commencement of the revolution, it was asserted that scarcely any two French men-of-war of the day, of any celebrity, were similar to each other, which assertion was deduced from the knowledge that each vessel was an invention. It is also affirmed that the calculation of the inventors ascertained, from the substructure and general form of their model, all the qualifications for stowage and other properties, the draft of water at the best sailing trim, height of port sills, the masts placed in accordance with the propensities, properties, and nature of the vessel. In fact, the proportions of every material in the vessel duly known and adjusted, every line and definite point cleared, satisfactorily upon principle.

paint is, consequently, in discordance with her superstructure. She is so narrow, that her guns can be used with difficulty when no manœuvre is necessary. Her two after-guns interfere with the wheel; her bulwarks are so preposterously high, that the crew appear encaged; the helmsman can see nothing; and if she ship a sea, the port sills are so high from the deck water-ways, that more water might be contained upon deck than the bearings of the ship would carry. She admeasures about 400 tons, and is masted and rigged equal to that class intended to imitate the Bonne Citoyenne, viz. Hind, Spey, Larne, &c. of 460 tons burthen, without any pretension, power, or qualification, to bear them. This vessel and the Rose must be considered a third inferior as to physical strength, from evident want of beam, and totally so, as a good sailer and handy-working vessel, to an eighteen-gun brig, which class of vessel has never been surpassed in any service. They have failed in action with an overmatch, it must be admitted, and which may be in some measure attributable to the fore-and-aft mainsail, which some officers do not understand the management of, owing to their having not served in brigs or cutters. This may be obviated, by rigging them as barques, with a long mizenmast, having a very taunt spiral sail, similar to the mizen of a ketch or dogger, without a topmast, which, and by their main-trysail being much enlarged, their sailing would be improved. If they are converted into slips, a mizen-topsail would only serve to embarrass so short a vessel, and would be too near the mainmast to brace up sharp on a wind. Every body must admit, that, fine as this class of brig or vessel is, they are not equal in tonnage, metal, armament in general, or number of crew, to American corvettes. It is also palpably evident, that a high poop cabin, which takes much canvass from the principal sail, and raises the boom beyond the reach of those who work it, and also quarter-davits for boats which do not allow that sail to be properly trimmed, when two or more points off the wind, are very awkward modern additions, both being hurtful to the sailing of these fine brigs, and the latter (which is also given to the ten-gun brigs), in time of action, could only occasion splinters and embarrassment. The writer served three years as first-lieutenant in one of the class on most active service, during which period she was never beaten in sailing, and was chosen for services where frigates could not be trusted, owing to her good properties for sailing, &c. He recommends the booms in two divisions to be stowed on deck, a fine boat equal to carry out an anchor and cable a little raised above the comings, and between the booms, her thwarts moveable, in order to receive within her a twenty-four feet cutter, when stowed their gunwhales to be flush with each other; the captain's gig on the cutter's thwarts, and a light boat astern. The booms, as at present stowed upon gallows, present themselves just where space is wanted in bowsing in the lee guns. The Scorpion (of that class) experienced the effect of the gallows giving way when on a lee shore, and was in great danger from the accident.

It is devoutly to be hoped, that the College, at present in its infancy, will, in future, promote the neglected science of Naval Architecture, and that the encouragement of premiums to students and others producing the best and most approved models, will be offered by the Government. Experiments in Naval Construction, on a large scale, would be found too expensive and ruinous, until the science, in all its variety of branches, is better understood. In the mean time, the finest and best approved models might be selected for imitation by persons of experience, judgment, and of mechanical ability and practice. The breaking up of the Commerce de Marseilles, of 120 guns, excited most justly the regret and astonishment of the navy. Her admirable qualities, as a fast sailing and weatherly ship; her handiness in working; the superior manner in which she carried her lower-deck ports, and her handsome appearance, will never be forgotten by those who have seen her at sea; and they will never cease to deplore what appeared to them to be the wanton destruction, not only of the best and handsomest man-of-war of her day, but also that of the best built and strongest constructed ship, both as to materials and workmanship, that the navy could then boast of.

While the Tonnant, Malta, and Canopus exist, we cannot want forms for large two-decked ships. The Impetueux has, with justice, been held up for imitation. The late French Courageux has produced some good English ships. The old Arrogant, Bellona, Bellerophon, Monarch, Tremendous, and all that class of small seventy-four, if their drafts were carefully and justly enlarged, would continue a treasure to the navy in an increased degree of force and all other excellent proper-

ties. We have also beautiful models for frigates, French, Spanish, and even English, for all will admit that the Melampus's qualities for going to windward, deserve to be held in remembrance. The Endymion and her relatives have not proved just imitations of the Pomone; nor is the Seringapatam of the Presidente; the French Hebe (afterwards the Blonde), and Spanish Santa Margaritta, had the character of good sailers. The writer was near five years first-lieutenant of the Pique (late French Pallas). She was distinguished for her beauty, was inimitable as a fast sailer on every point, and was an excellent sea-boat. Her model increased to any extent would have answered every desirable purpose. The Bonne Citoyenne and Heureux, with an increased breadth instead of diminution, as has been practised, would give models for matchless corvettes.*

To conclude these remarks, which might be reasonably prolonged, a few queries will be offered, which may serve to mark the design in presenting these few pages to the public: if they prove useful, and tend to show the folly and ill effects to shipping in general, and the public interest, of calculating tonnage or the burthen of shipping by the present mode; or should they contribute to produce any kind of benefit to naval construction, the object of the writer will be fully accomplished, who disclaims any personal feeling against any one, and who would not have ventured to promulgate these his opinions so freely, if he had not proved incontestably in four instances, on a small scale, where he has been inventor, draughtsman, and supervisor, that increase of breadth in a vessel's construction, is no bar or prevention to progression, where it is effected or produced with judgment, and where the other constituent parts of the vessel are in unison and accordance; but, on the contrary, he has fairly experienced and is fully satisfied, that the grand desideratum in all ships, viz. stability or uprightness under canvass, combined with fast sailing, is to be obtained upon the principles he advances, which every seaman will consider preferable in offensive warfare, to crankness, unhandiness, and ill sailing, even where possessing one-fourth more force in battery. Upon the system he advances, he will stake his credit as a practical seaman; and he is at all times ready to afford proof of the integrity of that system, and to stand the test of any examination or controversy.

QUERIES REGARDING TONNAGE OR THE ADMEASUREMENT OF SHIPPING.

Q. What is tonnage?

A. Tonnage is the contents of a vessel measured by the ton.—*Vide* Johnson, Arbuthnot.

Q. Upon what theory is the present system of British admeasurement grounded?

A. It differs from the system practised by all other countries, and cannot be grounded on any theory, because it does not *demonstrate the quantity or weight* that a vessel will stow and bear.

Q. Is there any duty on tonnage, and how does it affect a ship owner?

A. Yes, there is a duty upon vessel's tonnage, which tonnage is ascertained by the present fallacious method of admeasurement, which is called the register tonnage.

Q. Does the present established rule for the admeasurement of vessels admit of any evasion, or can a builder give a vessel the qualification to carry more than she admeasures by the established rule.

A. It frequently happens that a vessel is so preposterously built, that she may carry double her register tonnage, in which case the duty on half her contents would be evaded.

Q. What are the preposterous proportions which enable a vessel to carry more than she admeasures, and by which the duty is evaded?

A. Overhanging extremities (termed raking) which become a vessel's bearing when deeply loaded, depth of hold, wall sides, flatness of floor, and extraordinary length in proportion to the beam.

Q. Suppose the present mode of admeasurement discontinued, and that the cubic

---

* How extraordinary it appears that rewards and premiums are offered by the great encouragers of arts and sciences in this country, for inventions useful to agriculture and commercial manufactures, but no sort of encouragement is held out to the inventor of an improved ship or vessel.

space in a vessel's interior was the criterion of her burthen by admeasurement, is it to be apprehended that any intention of the legislature with regard to duty might be evaded; and in the event of a rule being founded on that principle, would it be so chimerical and vague as the present mode of calculating tonnage?

A. If that was the method by which vessels were measured, the duty could not be evaded. The timber in the formation of a vessel's bottom would then be so disposed, as to make her seaworthy and a good sailer; it would encourage breadth and stability under canvass, and, in fact, good formation to meet all the purposes of navigation, and commerce would thereby be encouraged, because the fine bottom would only pay duty in proportion to its contents.

Q. How would such a mode of admeasurement affect Naval Architecture?

A. It would encourage the construction of shipping on the finest theory and the best approved plan, and it would become the general interest to have the fastest sailing ships in the world.

Q. If such a mode was adopted, could a vessel carry as much more weight in proportion to her internal space, as (in the present mode) she has a pre-eminence of space in proportion to her power of carrying dead weight, supposing her shape altered by raising her floors, and thereby extending her beam aloft?

A. Yes, she would have the property to carry more dead weight if her beam was increased, although measuring no more cubic feet internally, and although her bottom was wedge-like in form.

Q. What may be termed bearing in Naval Construction?

A. Bearing is that feature in a vessel's form which protrudes or swells the body to any extent longer or wider than that which the body possesses at the line of flotation, and being above the water's edge, sustains her when pressed by wind and when embarrassed by shipping a sea.

Q. Is a flat floor, or any other full feature in a vessel's body, to be termed bearing, when a sufficient weight has been produced to immerse it?

A. Nothing under water can be considered bearing, because any additional weight applied after it is immersed, would be the means of sinking it; try a full cask, a full tub, or any thing having flat or round substruction, provided that there is no expansion or protrusion above the water's edge.

Q. Where ought the feature of bearing or swell on a vessel's exterior to exist, which constitutes real bearing?

A. It is presumed from six inches to three feet (according to the size of the vessel) above the line of flotation, in a man-of-war when fitted for six months, in a merchant-vessel when deeply laden.

Q. If that extended or increased breadth is formed above the line of flotation when the vessel is charged, would it prove detrimental to progression?

A. Certainly not, but would sustain the ship when carrying sail, and if the bottom was not of round formation, would prevent the rolling motion: and in the event of shipping a heavy sea, would serve to sustain her under its pressure.

Q. What propensity has a cask when filled with water? May the rotundity of its form be styled bearing, when charged with water, or any thing as heavy?

A. The least increase of weight would sink it, and it inclines to roll on water as it does on shore.

Q. Does a narrow or a broad body admit of most depth of hold, and upon what principle?

A. Undoubtedly the broad body, because it has bearings to support depth.

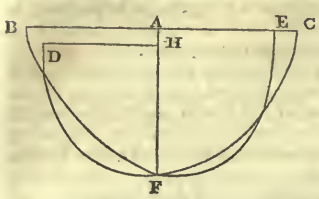
Q. Does a narrow or a broad body produce the most resistance against drifting to leeward or making lee-way?

A. Doubtless the broad body, because it is most upright, and being so, produces a rectangular resistance on the water against drifting to leeward.

Q. Which form in Section 1 will contain most cubic feet, ABF or HDF, and which form will actually bear the most dead weight; the surface of the exterior, or of the frame BF and DF being of the same contents in square feet?

The same quere holds good with regard to the figures in Section 2, ACF and AEF.

Section 1. Section 2.



N.B. These figures are meant to represent the greatest extent of a ship's frame at the extreme breadth.

Q. Which figures will move most upright?

A. The figures ABF and ACF will stand most upright with a small degree of ballast when under sail, from being wider, and the bearings being gradually increasing, and could not fall quite over on their side as might the other two figures.

Q. Which figures would be most inclined to roll?

A. HDF and AEF have nothing in their forms to prevent rolling.

Q. Which figures are most capable of velocity?

A. The sharp broad figures.

Q. Which form would most prevent and least favour the shifting of cargo or ballast?

A. It could not shift in the sharp body, but might in the round one.

Q. In which form might bilge pumps be dispensed with or become unnecessary?

A. In the sharp form they could not be required, as the water will always find its way to the limbers a-midships.

Q. Which would prove the most expensive style of building, and why?

A. It is humbly presumed that the expense of building would prove nearly the same if the cubic space in the vessel's interior was the criterion of her burthen by admeasurement, because the superficies of both forms would contain the same number of square feet in timber and work in her bottom.

Q. Which form would require the highest top-side and bulwark?

A. That which moves least upright, and rolls the most. The broad form, from being more staunch under canvass, need not have her ports so high from the water's edge. This argument (in the foregoing Quere) it is presumed favours the broad sharp form.

Q. Which form would afford the most roomy deck for working the ship; in action; for spacious hatchways, the stowage of boats, spars, &c.?

A. The broadest unquestionably.

Q. Which form, having space for every purpose in the interior, would best afford the sensible and approved system of tumbling home aloft, in order to concentrate the weight above water, and to make the guns on all decks water-borne when the ship heels or rolls?

A. Most assuredly the broadest form, and after pursuing the principle of tumbling home aloft, would still afford a deck as spacious as the present narrow style (with a wall side) possesses.

Q. Upon which form are contracted top-sides most obviously necessary?

A. Contraction aloft is most needful where the construction, or form, is crank, and liable to roll much.

Q. Which form would float most erect, and steadily, without being in danger of oversetting when the cargo is removed, and with only a small degree of ballast?

A. The broad, sharp form; because that with a flat floor would have no hold of the water, and might easily fall on its side.

Q. Which form is most likely to become hogged, or broken backed, when laid up at moorings in a light state?

A. That form it is imaginable where the centre is very full and the extremities suddenly tapered and overhanging; while that which has a gradual increase of breadth upwards, and no sudden overhanging bearings, cannot be distressed with the weight of moorings.

Q. Which form would swim deepest, provided that an equal weight be deposited in each?

A. The broad, sharp form, when partly laden; the narrow, flat floored form, when charged.

Q. Which form most ensures the safety of the masts?

A. Undoubtedly the broad form, being steadier and affording a greater angle to the standing rigging.

Q. Is an upright posture, or an inclined one, most favourable to the action of the rudder?

A. The upright, or vertical posture.

Q. Upon which form in the foregoing figures would the helm, upon the acknowledged principle, have the greatest effect?

A. It often happens that a narrow deep body heels so much in a squall, that her rudder is entirely ineffective, whereas the body which moves upright cannot lose its effect and influence.

Q. What is the foreign mode of gauging a vessel? How would the altered system, if effected, affect vessels in their communication with foreign ports?

A. In France, depth of hold is taken into the calculation of a vessel's capacity. The owner of the William, of Malta, was agreeably surprised to find that he paid no more duty on the tonnage of his vessel at Barcelona, in Spain, beyond the quantity of beans which she could stow, although admeasuring, according to her British register, nearly twice as much.

Q. By what method might a rule be established for quickly calculating the void internal space in a vessel, and thereby to ascertain her burthen; or what may be termed gauging her contents?

A.

Q. May it not be presumed, if ever a change in the method of admeasurement is effected, that merchant-vessels which are not embarrassed on their superstructure with ordnance, will sail even faster than vessels of war, and in that case might perform their voyage independent of convoys in war time.

A. They undoubtedly might, if masted and rigged in the same proportion.

Q. Conceive the form of a vessel altered by taking from the flat floor, and adding that fulness to the beam or breadth above the water-line (as demonstrated in the figures), without any increase of timber; and put the established weight of stores, provisions, and munitions within it,—what effect will such a change have upon the capacity? How will the body swim?

A. The capacity will be much increased, because the body will swim higher out of the water, or apparently lighter, and might contain more weight.

Q. Why then should the established or present mode of admeasurement, evidently ruinous as it is to the art of construction, and in favour only of preposterous, crank, and unwieldy bodies, be any longer continued?

A. * * * * *

To conclude these queries, the writer begs leave lastly to observe, that in sea fights the comparison of number of guns and weight of metal is more considered than the comparison of tonnage or dimensions, of which the government of the United States appear wisely to take advantage. Observe the ships of their service in the late war, and those also which they have lately launched, and which in dimensions (by our rule of admeasurement) are more than equal to our first-rates, although by them denominated seventy-fours and eighties; whereas the mode of our admeasurement, different from all others, gives us the disadvantage of fighting the same number of guns, placed upon a battery less roomy and less stable, although the form may possess as much cubic space, which the foreigner might say equalises the size of the combatants from the argument of our own admeasurement, or rule of calculation, which, in truth, is to the British Navy ruinous, and, like the scorpion's sting, self-destructive.

MEMOIR OF THE SERVICES OF THE LATE VICE-ADMIRAL WINTHROP.

Admiral Winthrop was born about the year 1762 in America, and entered the service in 1779 as Midshipman, in which capacity he served on board the Formidable, of 98 guns, the flag ship of Admiral Sir George Brydges Rodney, in his memorable action of the 12th April 1782, and subsequently served in the same capacity in several other ships. On the 3rd November 1790, Mr. Winthrop was promoted to the rank of Lieutenant, and had the command of a detachment of seamen landed from the men-of-war under the orders of Admiral Sir John Jervis, (afterwards Earl St. Vincent,) to assist at the reduction of Martinique by the force under Gen. Sir Charles Grey, on the 16th March 1794.

On the 6th October 1795 Lieut. Winthrop was promoted to the rank of Commander, and commanded the Albacore sloop-of-war at the capitulation of Saint Lucia on the 25th May 1796, to the joint forces under the respective orders of Rear-Admiral Sir Hugh C. Christian, and Lieut.-Gen. Sir Ralph Abercromby. Soon after, the Albacore captured, near Barbadoes, L'Athenienne, a French corvette of 14 guns. Capt. Winthrop was then appointed to act in the Undaunted of 40 guns, and had the misfortune to be wrecked in that ship, on the 27th August 1796, off Morant Keys, in a very heavy gale of wind. There being no blame attributable to Capt. Winthrop, he was posted on the 16th December in the same year. His next appointment was to the Circe frigate on the North Sea station. In May 1798 the Circe was employed, in conjunction with several other ships, under the orders of Capt. Sir Home Popham, and two thousand soldiers under the command of Major-Gen. Coote, sent for the destruction of the locks and sluice-gates at Bruges. This expedition did not succeed in the manner that was expected, and ended in the capitulation of Major-Gen. Coote, and the troops under his orders.

In the following year, Capt. Winthrop commanded a small squadron off the coast of Holland, where he captured and destroyed several valuable merchant vessels. He was also at the taking of the Helder when that place was attacked by the forces under the orders of Vice-Admiral Mitchell and Gen. Sir Ralph Abercromby, and which eventually led to the surrender of the Dutch fleet under Admiral Storey in the Texel. Capt. Winthrop was afterwards cruising off the Ems, and upon reconnoitring the port of Delfzel, conceived it possible to capture the vessels therein. Having made the necessary preparations, he proceeded in the enterprise; and assisted by the officers of the Circe, and Lieut. Buckle, of the Hawk cutter, in command of the boats assigned to each, and succeeded in capturing and safely bringing out the Lynx of 12 guns, and Perseus of 8 guns, both privateers.

From the Circe, Capt. Winthrop was appointed to the Stag, of 32 guns, and was attached to the squadron under the orders of Sir John Borlase Warren, in the attack upon Ferrol on the 26th August 1800, and from thence proceeded to Vigo, in the bay of which place, on the 6th of the following month, the Stag drove from her cables during a heavy gale of wind, soon after went on shore, and was lost. Capt.

Winthrop, the officers and crew, and part of the stores, were fortunately saved, and the wreck was set on fire and destroyed. A Court-Martial was subsequently held, which acquitted Capt. Winthrop, his officers, &c. but he was not again employed until after the renewal of the war with France, when he was appointed to the Ardent, of 64 guns, in which he drove on shore on the Spanish coast La Bayonnaise, a French frigate from the Havannah to Ferrol, carrying 32 guns and 200 men.

In the summer of 1804, an attack was meditated upon the flotilla at Boulogne, preparing for the invasion of our shores. The expedition was placed under the orders of Admiral Viscount Keith, then commanding in the Downs, &c. and its execution was confided to Capt. Sir H. Popham, who commanded the Antelope. This was termed the "Catamaran expedition," and Capt. Winthrop, in the Ardent, assisted in the attempt.

In May 1805, Capt. Winthrop was examined before a Select Committee of the House of Commons, "On the papers relating to the repairs of His Majesty's ships Romney and Sensible, while under the command of Sir Home Popham;" and in July of that year was appointed to the Sibyl frigate, in which ship, in May 1807, he captured l'Oiseau, a French letter of marque. In 1808 he was appointed to superintend the sea fencibles at and near Dover, from which he afterwards was placed upon half-pay. A promotion of flag officers taking place on the 12th August 1819, the anniversary of the birth of George the Fourth, then Prince Regent, Capt. Winthrop was made Rear-Admiral; and on the 22nd July 1830, on the accession to the throne of his present Majesty, Vice-Admiral of the Blue, in neither of which ranks did he hoist his flag.

Admiral Winthrop had resided many years at Dover, at which place he was attacked by paralysis on the 9th of May, and expired on the day following, in the seventy-first year of his age, leaving a family of four unmarried daughters and two sons.

MEMOIR OF THE SERVICES OF THE LATE LIEUTENANT-GENERAL JAMES DUNLOP.

THE subject of this memoir having obtained a commission as Lieutenant in the 82nd regiment in 1778, embarked in March of that year with his corps for Nova Scotia: he landed at Halifax, and did duty there till the following spring. In March 1779, he sailed with the grenadier and light companies of the garrison for New York; he was shipwrecked on the coast of New Jersey, four-fifths of the company to which he belonged were drowned, and the remainder were made prisoners of war by the Americans. In November 1780, he was exchanged, and joining the army at New York, he, in the absence of his corps, volunteered with the 80th regiment on an expedition to Virginia, where he served during a very active winter campaign, until the mouth of the Chesapeake having been taken possession of by two French frigates, he was sent with the intelligence to Charlestown, where he arrived in April 1781. He soon after joined a detachment

of his regiment, serving with other corps at Washington, in North Carolina, under Major Craig, afterwards Gen. Sir James Craig, by whom he was appointed to the command of a troop of dragoons, formed from the infantry under the Major's command. Here he was engaged in daily skirmishes with the enemy, until the surrender of Lord Cornwallis's army at York Town, when the troops under Major Craig were withdrawn to Charlestown.

Having purchased, in May 1782, a company in the 82nd foot, he joined that corps at Halifax, Nova Scotia, where he served till the autumn of the following year, when he embarked with the remains of his regiment for England. The transport containing the troops sprang a leak, and was compelled by tempestuous weather to bear away for the West Indies: the troops in convoy were landed at Antigua, where they did duty until the April following, when they again embarked for England, were landed at Portsmouth, from whence they marched to Edinburgh, and in June 1784, were disbanded.

Capt. Dunlop remained on half-pay until the autumn of 1797, when he raised men for a full-pay company in the 77th regiment, then in the East Indies; and immediately after proceeded to Bombay, where he did duty until war was declared against Tippoo Sultaun. In November 1789 he joined the army forming in Malabar, under Sir Ralph Abercromby: he served through that campaign, and was at the siege of Cannamore. In September 1790, he again took the field under Sir Ralph Abercromby; served at the first siege of Seringapatam, and returned to Bombay on the re-establishment of peace.

In 1794 he became Deputy Paymaster-General to the King's troops serving under the Bombay Government, and afterwards Military Secretary to the Governor: in the same year, he obtained the brevet of Major, and in the following year a Majority, and also a Lieutenant-Colonelcy in the 77th foot.

In 1797 he had the command of 1500 men ordered to take the field against a refractory Rajah in the province of Malabar, who had repulsed or defeated three detachments, one of above 2000 men, which had been sent against him. Having succeeded in dispersing the Rajah's followers, and having obtained possession of his fort, Lieut.-Colonel Dunlop was appointed, at the conclusion of the service, to the command of the garrison of Cochin, where he remained till the breaking out of the Mysore war.

Having joined the army assembling in Malabar, in October 1798, under Lieut.-Gen. James Stuart, Lieut.-Colonel Dunlop was appointed to command the European troops under his orders, consisting of a brigade of three battalions. In this capacity he served at the battle of Sedaseer on the 6th March 1799; and on the 4th May following, commanded one of the two columns employed in the assault of Seringapatam. On this service, when mounting the breach, he received a severe sabre wound in his right arm, which rendered him unfit for service for several months, and from the effects of which he never entirely recovered. In September following he again took the field, some of the enemy's chiefs and hill forts in the Canara country still holding out; and on the conclusion of this service he returned, in 1800, to England.

Lieut.-Colonel Dunlop was ordered, on the renewal of war in 1803,

to Guernsey, to take the command of a battalion formed of recruits and recruiting companies of battalions in India. In the same year he obtained the rank of Colonel, and also exchanged from the 77th into the 59th regiment. In 1804 he was appointed Brigadier-General, and attached to the Western District; he was subsequently transferred to the Eastern, and in 1806 commanded a Highland brigade quartered at Colchester.

In July 1810, he obtained the rank of Major-General, and was in that year placed on the Staff of Lord Wellington's army in the Peninsula. He joined the army while it occupied the lines of Torres Vedras, and being appointed to the command of a brigade in the fifth division, under the orders of Lieut.-General Leith, was employed with that part of the army which followed the French in their retreat to Santarem, &c. On Lieut.-General Leith quitting the army in December, Major-General Dunlop took the command of the division then at Alcoentre, and soon after moved with it into winter quarters at Torres Vedras. On the 11th March, he joined the army assembling between Leria and Pombal in pursuit of the French, then retiring from Portugal. During the whole of the arduous and successful campaign which followed, including the battle of Fuentes d'Onore, &c. Major-General Dunlop served generally with that part of the army under the immediate orders of the Commander of the Forces; and constantly in command of the fifth division. At the close of the campaign, the division having arrived in its winter quarters in Guarda, the Major-General obtained leave to return to England. The 4th of June 1814, he was appointed Lieutenant-General. At the period of his death in March last, this gallant officer was Colonel of the 75th Foot.

MONUMENT TO THE JOINT MEMORIES OF THE LATE MAJOR-GEN. GEORGE MACKIE, C.B. AND MAJOR-GEN. SIR DAVID STEWART, K.C.B. AT ST. LUCIA.

A SKETCH of this gratifying testimonial of respect has been forwarded to us. The monument is simple and characteristic in its form, having a base of eight feet square, terminating in a pyramid, the entire being fifteen feet eight inches in height. On one side is a tablet bearing the following inscription:—

SACRED
TO THE MEMORY OF HIS EXCELLENCY
MAJOR-GENERAL GEORGE MACKIE, C.B.
GOVERNOR OF ST. LUCIA,
who died at the Pavilion, on the 8th of March 1831, in the 53rd year of his age, after a severe illness of eight days, and within two months of his arrival in this colony.
THIS TRIBUTE OF RESPECT
to his worth, as an amiable man and upright Governor,
IS ERECTED
by the staff-officers, non-commissioned officers, and privates of the Royal Artillery, Royal Engineers, 93rd Highlanders, and 1st West India regiment, together with a large portion of the respectable inhabitants of the island.
A.D. 1831.

*** A similar tablet is placed on the opposite side of the monument to the memory of Major-Gen. Sir David Stewart, K.C.B. who died Governor of the same island on the 28th Dec. 1829.

HISTORY OF HIS MAJESTY'S SHIP CUMBERLAND OF SEVENTY-FOUR GUNS.

CAPTAINS.

Hon. Philip Wodehouse, October 1807.
Edward Harvey (acting), February 1st, 1811.
Robert Clephane (acting), April 1st, 1811.
Robert Waller Otway, August 18th, 1811.

THE history of a ship is here assumed to signify a narration of the particular share of public service performed by her, and of incidents which, although not partaking of an official character, may have happened in connexion with her.

Adopting this definition, it is proposed to record in the following pages, the services of the above ship, blended with such other events as may be deemed worthy of notice; although, except in the cases of ships that have been engaged in a series of highly-interesting employments, it is difficult to invest the *memoirs* of the less favoured, (among which may be ranked our present subject,) with a character much superior to that of a mere condensed *log*. It is premised that the exact dates of most of the transactions noticed will be omitted, as the order of time of their occurrence will be sufficiently indicated without them; neither is the strictest possible accuracy claimed for a narrative, the materials of which were chiefly derived from memory. The Cumberland was launched from Pitcher's-yard, Northfleet, in August 1807; and in the system of classification then used in the navy, but since discontinued, was a seventy-four-gun ship of the second class. Just before she was commissioned, a singular *hoax* was practised with regard to her, but which does not appear to have had any object beyond the gratification of a harmless vanity. A person of tolerably prepossessing address, came on board in the uniform of a post-captain,* and informed the warrant officers he was appointed to the command, and desired to be showed round the ship. He was received with fitting respect, and proceeded forthwith to examine the decks, store-rooms, &c.; making, during his tour, various observations indicative of the plans of internal arrangement and of discipline that he intended to adopt; finally, he ordered the boatswain to get a *derrick* rigged next day, as some of his wine, &c. would then be brought alongside. All this was listened to with becoming deference, and he returned on shore, leaving the officers very favourably impressed with his behaviour, which, combined with a ready and apposite use of technicalities, left no ground for suspicion. The *derrick* was rigged, but not employed until the real captain made his appearance in October, and the preparations for service which immediately followed that event, satisfactorily established his claims to command, more especially as about the same time his rival was discovered *before the mast*, on board the Namur guard-ship. When ready for sea, the Cumberland was ordered to Portsmouth, and in January 1808 sailed from thence to join the blockading squadron under Rear-Admiral Sir R. Strachan, off Rochfort. In going down Channel, off Dartmouth, she ran foul of a West Indiaman, but without causing or incurring any other damage than the loss of her own sprit-sail-yard. In the Bay of Biscay, being apprised by the Phœnix frigate of the escape of the Rochfort squadron, the Cumberland two days afterwards communicated this information to Sir R. Strachan, and accompanied him in pursuit of it to the Mediterranean, speaking on the passage with the Admirals who were off Ferrol, Lisbon, and Cadiz, and in March joined Vice-Admiral Lord Collingwood, off Maretimo.

* An expression now obsolete in an official sense, although habit among nautical men, and Dibdin's song in general society, will ensure it a long prospective currency.

The French fleet, now consisting of the Toulon and Rochfort ships, was sought nearly round that sea. Palermo and Syracuse were visited for supplies and intelligence during the chace, which terminated in April by the return of the enemy to Toulon. The blockade of that port was now renewed, and the Cumberland became regularly attached to the Mediterranean fleet. Nothing particular occurred in the latter this summer, except that it went to Pula Bay, Sardinia, for water; and the absence of Lord Collingwood for three months at Cadiz. On the 6th of Dec. the Cumberland, after a run of six hours, captured the new French schooner, La Favorite, one day from Marseilles, and bound to Cayenne, with a general cargo. This leeward chace led the former out of sight of the fleet, and she was endeavouring to rejoin, when the memorable gale commenced, that totally dispersed it, and compelled the Ocean, 98, the flag-ship of the Commander-in-chief, to bear up for Malta, in a disabled condition. Although the Cumberland was *contract built*, she was a very superior ship, both in construction and sea qualities, and weathered this trying gale with trifling injury, being one of the first ships that made the general rendezvous off Minorca. Here the fleet re-assembled, and wintering at Mahon, remained there until the end of April 1809, when the Leonidas frigate arrived, with information that a French squadron and convoy of transports had relieved Barcelona: the fleet instantly put to sea to intercept their return, and making the coast near Cape Creux, captured, but did not finally detain, several transports, containing invalids; the other ships, however, returned safely to Toulon. About this time the Cumberland, with the Colossus, 74, under her orders, was detached to the Bay of Rosas, to attempt the capture or destruction of a large French brig-of-war and some merchantmen. Having arrived in the bay, the boats were despatched at ten P.M. and rowed about all night, vainly seeking their object until daylight, when the enemy was discovered moored under the batteries, and obviously prepared to make a most advantageous defence; but as the boats were still at a considerable distance, these circumstances most reluctantly induced the commanding officer, a man of highly established professional character, to abstain from an attack, and return to the ships, which then rejoined the fleet off Toulon.

In the absence of anything of a more important nature on board the ship this summer, the following incidents are worthy of recital: In July she had the look-out in shore, and was not very distant from the harbour's mouth, when a small boat, rowed by two persons, was observed coming towards her; they came on board, and were two fine French lads of about sixteen, who stated that they were *on leave* from Le Lion, one of the ships of the Toulon fleet. This occurrence is not otherwise remarkable than as affording an instance of reckless temerity on the part of these lads, in deserting from one of the strongest and most vigilantly guarded ports in the world, in the middle of a very fine day. In September the ship had refitted at Mahon, and one evening, while the captain's gig was waiting for him at the landing-place, a Minorquin, of about eighteen, attired as a seaman of the island, came down and took a seat in the boat, and in imperfect English requested to be taken on board the ship to enter. At this moment the Captain arrived, and witnessing the reluctance manifested by this person to land, and also hearing a wish expressed to enter, stepped into the boat, and rowed off. Next day the ship sailed, and our volunteer was berthed, watched, and quartered, and stationed in the after-guard. The difference of language and of dress, and a certain inaptitude to the work, naturally attracted some attention, and a rather striking peculiarity of build *à posteriori*, did not escape comments; nevertheless, these novelties wore off, and the ship rejoined the fleet. After the lapse of about a fortnight from the commencement of the adventure, a report was made one morning to the first-lieutenant, that familiarities had been observed between a seaman and John Coil, (the name borne by the Minorquin,) which rendered necessary a more minute inquiry relative to the past occupations of

the latter. The equivocal personage was summoned to the quarter-deck, and upon being interrogated, acknowledged herself to be a *woman!* It may be supposed that the whole affair was concerted by herself and the lover, but there is no reason to believe either that he was previously acquainted with her, or that she had assumed a disguise so foreign to her sex to gratify any personal attachment; neither were her features remarkably calculated to excite such feelings; and it is just to state, that her previous demeanour was not marked by levity, but rather by reserve. Discarding, therefore, all romantic speculations, her confession stated, that she was prompted to take this extraordinary step, solely from a family quarrel. A liberal subscription was made by the captain and officers in her behalf, and she was sent to Minorca by the first opportunity.

On the 22nd of October, the fleet was cruising off Cape San Sebastian, and about ten P.M. the Pomone frigate joined, with intelligence that the Toulon fleet had put to sea: immediate preparations were made for its reception, and a bright look-out kept. On the 23rd, at eight A.M. the enemy was discovered in the north-east, standing south-west before the wind; and at ten they were plainly made out to consist of three sail of the line, two frigates, several smaller vessels of war, and about twenty transports. At this time they first saw the English fleet, and hauled to the wind, when Rear-Admiral Martin, in the Canopus, with several other ships-of-the-line, were directed to separate from the fleet in chace. The French line-of-battle ships and frigates also now separated from the convoy, and the latter stood towards their own coast, being much annoyed in their flight by the Pomone, which, in the evening, destroyed five of them; the remainder fetched into the Bay of Rosas. The French squadron stood upon the larboard tack to the eastward, and was lost sight of by the body of our fleet before dark. The wind during most of the day had been light and variable, and as either of the squadrons into which the fleet was now divided, was much superior to the enemy, Lord Collingwood, to increase the chances of capturing him, tacked to the southward at sunset, while Rear-Admiral Martin stood more directly after the enemy. When the Commander-in-chief went about, the Cumberland was signalled to continue upon the starboard tack; she, therefore, soon lost sight of him, and by carrying on during the night, was at daylight of the 24th, nearly in company with Rear-Admiral Martin, whom she joined, the other ships in company being the Renown (broad pendant), Tigre, Sultan, and Leviathan, seventy-fours. This day was hazy with fresh breezes and occasional rain. At noon, the Admiral demanded by signal the opinions of the respective captains, of the bearing of the enemy; these were various, and he continued on the same tack under a heavy press of sail, by which he sprang his main-top-mast. After two P.M. the Renown, from being almost the weathermost ship, caught several partial glimpses of the enemy through the haze, and about five o'clock, the Tigre made a signal for four sail N.N.E.: these were the French, consisting of Le Robuste, 84, Rear-Admiral Baudin; Le Lion, 74; Le Borée, 74; and La Pauline, 40; the other frigate, La Pomone, having parted company, and afterwards reached Marseilles. They were pursued until darkness and the shoal nature of the coast near the mouths of the Rhone, together with a fresh wind blowing directly on shore, rendered it advisable to discontinue the chace.

On the 25th, at daylight, the enemy was seen standing along shore to the eastward, and we resumed the pursuit. About eleven the breeze failed for a short, but most important time, as we were then about four miles from him; and at noon, Le Robuste and Le Lion ran on shore, with studding sails set, near Frontignan, nearly a mile from the beach, and five north-east of Cette. Latterly the chace had been general, and as the squadron comprised the fastest ships of the fleet, their sailing was tolerably equal, but a slight superiority in favour of the Cumberland had placed her nearest to the last-named French ships, of which the one bearing the flag was

within two cables'-length of the lee quarter of her consort. The Cumberland was now about half a gun-shot from them, and was in the act of wearing, in order to run down and anchor with a spring on the Robuste's weather-bow, (a position so judiciously chosen, that it would have enabled us nearly to rake both ships,) the sails on the main-mast were being furled, the men were at the guns, and it seemed that we were on the eve of commencing action, but this anticipation was suddenly checked by the leadsman calling out, "*Quarter less five!*" The ship was instantly hauled close to the wind, and sail made, in order to clear a shoal that was now plainly seen, but which the charts omitted, or delineated incorrectly. The promptness of this manœuvre, perhaps, saved some of our ships from running on shore, for although at this time several of them had signals flying, that indicated the vicinity of danger, none were in such shoal water as the Cumberland; and at the above critical moment, she certainly might have been fired at with advantage. Upon the separation of the enemy's squadron, Le Borée and La Pauline stood to the westward, pursued by the Tigre and Leviathan, until the frigate ran on shore in Cette Harbour, and her consort at its entrance. At the close of this brief chace, the Tigre exchanged fire with the latter several times, and also with the batteries. Our squadron now re-assembled, and as there were indications of bad weather, stood off for the night, one of the Frontignan ships having cut away her main and mizen-masts, and the other her mizen-mast by the board, and both being surrounded by small craft, which appeared to be receiving their stores. The 26th was rather hazy with light winds, and it was observed that Le Lion had cut all her masts away, and Le Robuste all but her foremast: in the forenoon, the Canopus shifted her main-top-mast, and afternoon, the squadron stood towards Frontignan, and the master and two boats were sent from each ship to examine the shoal, and seek for an anchorage or passage, from or through which to make an attack. While thus employed, they were repeatedly fired at from the sterns of the Robuste and Lion, but without effect; and Lieut. E. Boxer, in one of the Tigre's boats, approached those ships so closely, that they sent two launches to capture her, which they were very near accomplishing. The Cumberland's boats were nearest to the endangered one, and seeing her extremity, rowed to her support: the master of that ship, Richard Burstall, having determined to grapple with the Frenchmen to save her, "By G–d, boys, that boat shan't be taken, if we fight for her with broken oars and stretchers," was his expression, which may be explained by stating, that our crews were unarmed, as they had been despatched in great haste, and only to sound. A few minutes would have sufficed to bring the adverse parties in this unequal conflict to issue, when the anxious feelings excited on board the two ships most interested, were relieved by a shot fired from the Cumberland's lower-deck, which falling very near to the headmost launch, she pulled short round, and with her companion returned to their ships.

From the foulness of the bottom, the result of the sounding proved unfavourable to the proposed object, and as it was now evening, and the wind was dying away, the squadron again stood off shore. At seven, being nearly calm, it was discovered that the Frontignan ships were on fire, and at eight, the flames burst from them, our squadron being about five miles distant. It was now quite calm, and the night was dark, but with the aid of glasses, the progress of the flames upon the burning ships was plainly discernible: the Admiral's flag was displayed on his remaining mast, and the colours of the two ships at their ensign staffs; these gently undulating in the light airs that occasionally prevailed, exhibited the tri-coloured flags in beautiful relief, and imparted additional interest to a scene, which the lurid glare upon the tranquil bosom of the ocean of such mighty volumes of flame, and the frequent discharge of the heated guns, rendered truly grand. Soon after eleven o'clock, Le Lion exploded with an appalling sound, and Le Robuste about half an hour afterwards. The destruction of these fine ships

by the French Admiral, was, perhaps, rather premature, for although there was little probability that he would have been able to carry them into port, (as besides being dismasted, they most likely were bilged,) he might, nevertheless have deferred burning them for at least that night, and have trusted to the chapter of accidents for blowing weather off shore, (which the season of the year did not render a forlorn hope, in the Gulf of Lyons,) to afford sufficient time to land the guns, &c.; for he could have burned them whenever he pleased short of the period of their being actually boarded, and the movements of the hostile squadron showed most unequivocally, that it was not sufficiently acquainted with the localities of his position to have assailed him very suddenly. Le Borée was apparently much damaged, and La Pauline most probably had sustained injury, but they, nevertheless, returned to Toulon during the winter. In this affair, the manifest superiority of our force, and its successful termination with scarcely any hostile collision, do not allow of much interest attaching to its progress, which has been detailed rather minutely, in order to illustrate the portion of it that devolved upon the Cumberland; for as it was not her fortune to participate in any brilliant service, except in the instance which follows, her historian felt that he could not in justice dispense with an ample relation of the one in question, in which she bore a leading share.

On the 30th the squadron rejoined Lord Collingwood, and in the evening of the same day, the Cumberland was detached under the orders of the Tigre, Capt. Hallowell, with the Volontaire, Apollo, and Topaz frigates, Philomel, Scout, and Tuscan brigs, to attack La Lamproie, frigate-built store-ship, and some other national vessels and transports of Baudin's convoy in the Bay of Rosas. The town of that name is situated on the north side of the bay, and is defended on the western side by a citadel which stands near the shore, and on the eastern by the castle of Trinity, which occupies an elevated situation, and has a strong battery at the foot of the declivity: some inferior works had also been recently erected; the anchorage is abreast of the town, and between the above defences. Capt. Hallowell intended to have attacked the enemy with the squadron, under sail, on the 31st, and an order of battle was issued with that view, but in the interim a southerly wind set a swell into the bay that would have rendered the effect of a distant cannonade uncertain, and have incurred the risk of drifting on shore, for any of our ships that might have been disabled in a near one; it was therefore determined to have recourse to the boats, and after dark, the squadron having run into the bay, anchored about five miles from the town, except the brigs, which were kept under weigh to act as circumstances might require. At midnight the boats shoved off in two divisions, the first from the Tigre and the second from the Cumberland, all under the command of Lieut. John Tailour of the former ship. From the darkness, apparently increased by the vicinity of high land, the enemy was not found so soon as had been anticipated, and, perhaps, this delay was less sensibly felt by the other partakers of the enterprise, than by the Cumberland's, from the disappointment experienced by them in May; which had given rise to some irritation of feeling, an almost invariable consequence of want of success in such undertakings, even where (as in that instance) not a shadow of blame could be imputed. At length, at about four A.M. the boats having just previously lain on their oars to remedy some disorder in their towing, a light was seen in shore, and Lieut. E. Boxer of the Tigre was sent to reconnoitre: he was soon fired at from a guard-boat placed in advance of the convoy, and all doubts being now resolved, the boats pushed in, their crews making the hills that surround the bay re-echo with their cheers. The enemy expecting their arrival was quite prepared, and immediately opened a loose fire of musketry from the vessels, directly followed by a heavy cannonade from some of the latter and from the forts, which our launches returned, and the other boats proceeded to their assigned duties. The first division boarded La Lamproie, and overcoming a well contested resistance, set her on fire, together

with several other vessels. The Cumberland's boats, under Lieut. John Murray, and the remainder of the second division, first captured L'Indien, a brig laden with flour, and then proceeded to Le Grondeur, a large transport brig of eight guns; she was first boarded by Lieut. Richard Stuart of the Cumberland, and with some other assistance taken after a spirited defence. Midshipman C. R. Milbourne of that ship, in the barge, proceeded from Le Grondeur to La Normande, a national settée of ten guns, that from having a spring on her cable, and being about the last attacked, was inflicting great injury by her fire: being surrounded with nettings, she was boarded with difficulty, and her gallant commander, Arnaud, did not then surrender to the above officer until he had lost an arm by a shot from one of the batteries.

The bay was now illumined by the flames and successive explosions of the vessels which had been set on fire, and although the order for carrying this service into effect was "merely to destroy the convoy," a fair wind springing up induced the victors farther to substantiate their exploit by bringing out the three last-named vessels, and Le Dragon, also a transport brig partly laden.* On our part there were killed, Lieut. Dalhousie Tait, of the Volontaire; master's-mate Caldwell, of the Tigre; and fourteen men; and ten officers and forty-six men wounded. Of these the Cumberland lost two men killed and fifteen wounded, including among the latter, Lieut. Stuart and midshipman Milbourne, slightly; and master's-mate John Webster, and midshipman W. H. Brady, severely.

This successful enterprise caused a loss to the enemy of a considerable quantity of stores, of which their army in Catalonia, and particularly the garrison of Barcelona (whither they were bound) stood in great need; a part however of the cargoes had been landed. Its importance and perfect execution were sufficiently appreciated by the Admiralty, to call forth its special thanks to the officers and men who were employed—an attention not often accorded to boat expeditions: a liberal meed of promotion was also granted. Rejoining the fleet, it proceeded to Mahon to winter, from whence the Cumberland, having the Bombay, 74, and Wizard brig under her orders, was sent upon a short cruize off Sardinia. In the spring of 1810 she again accompanied the fleet to blockade Toulon. In March Lord Collingwood died, and the command devolved upon Rear-Admiral Martin, who in April detached the Cumberland, with the Thames frigate, to cruize off Cape Bon, where they captured the French brig Apollonian, from Cyprus, bound to Genoa, laden with cotton, &c. Having refitted at Malta and visited Palermo, the Cumberland was employed during the summer principally on the western coast of Calabria, to intercept the convoys from Naples that supplied the army of Murat, which was encamped between Scylla and Reggio, designing to invade Sicily. In June, at Melazzo, she embarked some troops, under the command of Lieut.-Colonel Bryce, and accompanied by a transport and a light flotilla, threatened a descent at Tropea, which however was not attempted. In July the Thames, Weazel, and Pilot captured and destroyed a convoy of thirty sail at Amantea: the Cumberland joined them at the close of the affair, and ultimately shared for the prizes. Two days afterwards, at the same place, her boats and those of the Weazel, covered by the latter, destroyed a gun-boat and several oil vessels, and brought off the gun-boats, eighteen-pounder, and some stores, which the enemy had buried in the sand; a smart fire of musketry was kept up from the town, by which a marine of the Cumberland and some of the Weazel's men were wounded. The probability of an invasion being soon attempted becoming more apparent,

* The following were destroyed:—National ship La Lamproie, sixteen nine-pounders, 116 men; ditto Bombard La Victoire, fourteen six-pounders, 80 men; ditto Felucca L'Alsacien, small arms, and 20 men: transports—L'Union, La Bien Aimée, and Notre Dame de Rosaire, each of 150 tons; Notre Dame de Grace, 90 tons.

several ships of the line and some smaller vessels of war, besides a large flotilla of gun and mortar boats, under Rear-Admiral Martin, were assembled in the Strait of Messina, and the Cumberland was anchored about a mile westward of the Faro point, in order to oppose a landing in that quarter. The natural beauty of this region excites even higher interest than it intrinsically merits, from the associations derived from fabulous history that are connected with almost every object it presents to the view; and the excitement arising from this cause was heightened by the consideration that at the period now treated of events of high political importance were confidently anticipated in its vicinity.

The Sicilian coast, from Faro point to Messina, was occupied by nearly two hundred sail, including almost every description of vessels of war, from two-deckers to row-boats armed with swivels; these were anchored singly, or in squadrons of varying numbers and force, near different assailable points. On shore formidable batteries were raised; in the rear of these, various encampments were pitched; and the adjacent heights were crowned with fortifications. The Calabrian side, from Scylla nearly to Reggio, presented as considerable a flotilla of gun and mortar-boats, and a still more numerous assemblage of small coasters, for the transport of the invaders, but the whole did not afford a vessel of the burthen or armament of a gun-brig; these were also well covered by batteries. The Franco-Neapolitan army, from being encamped in larger masses and upon higher ground than that occupied by the Anglo-Sicilian, exhibited a more imposing appearance than the latter; the marquees of Murat were very conspicuous, one of them being surmounted by his standard. Scarcely a day passed without a cannonade of various duration, commonly originating in the passage through the strait of a ship-of-war or merchantman, under English or Sicilian colours, a display which almost invariably provoked a fire from the enemy's batteries, that was as uniformly returned by ours. There were also partial attacks made by us upon their flotilla and lines, and upon one occasion a general bombardment of them, at which the Cumberland's boats, under Lieut. Sargent, assisted; but no visible effects were produced, and neither party sustained much loss, nevertheless it afforded a most brilliant spectacle, of which a panoramic representation was afterwards exhibited in London.

In August the Cumberland resumed her cruise on the coast of Calabria, and off Pizzo, in the Gulf of St. Euphemia, cannonaded a numerous convoy, and drove several vessels belonging to it on shore, and soon afterwards returned to her former anchorage. In the vicinity of this narrow strait lightning is of frequent occurrence, and moreover is extremely vivid. On the 25th of August, at midnight, the mainmast was struck by the electric fluid, which, besides severely injuring the mast, set the top on fire, but, as a copious rain was falling, a slight additional aid soon extinguished it. A week afterwards, and in the apparent absence of any suspicious atmospheric signs, the same mast was again struck, and providentially while the ship's company was at breakfast, or probably some lives would have been lost, for the carpenters had just previously descended from the mast, which they had been employed in *fishing;* so completely was it now shattered as to render its repair hopeless, and the ship was sent to Malta for a new one. Upon the first occasion it was rendered unserviceable, except for a temporary purpose, but the exigencies of the period would not admit of sparing the ship. This is particularly noticed, as the sequel will show the remarkable fact, that in eight months she may be considered to have had three mainmasts disabled from this cause. Just before she left Malta the anchor came home in a violent squall that drove her ashore, under fort St. Angelo, by which accident the rudder sustained considerable injury.*

* The writer once belonged to a frigate that was sent to Malta to replace a sprung foremast; a new one was stepped, but on putting over the lower rigging,

During the interval, Murat, having been foiled in a partial attempt to invade Sicily, abandoned his project, and withdrew to Naples. The Cumberland proceeded to Melazzo for Vice-Admiral Martin, whom she conveyed to Palermo, where she was now chiefly stationed, the exceptions being an occasional cruise between Sicily and Sardinia. In one of these, in December, she re-captured the American schooner Friendship, laden with cotton and dyeing woods. In March 1811, she chased for great part of a day, a fine Greek polacca, and from the circumstance of her standing upon a direct course for the *Esquerques*, near which she was brought to, a confident expectation was entertained that she would prove a prize: upon boarding her, however, this suspected design to lead us into danger, was explained by the almost primitive method by which she was navigated; for upon the master being asked why he steered such a hazardous course, he professed ignorance of any risk: this led to further inquiry, when it appeared, that for the above purpose, he possessed only a compass, a log, and chart, on which the rocks alluded to were not laid down.*

In April, a Sicilian squadron of three frigates, and of six smaller vessels-of-war, was sent to Cagliari, to bring some of the Royal family from thence to Palermo: the Cumberland accompanied this force, ostensibly to increase the honour of the escort, but as was also conjectured, to afford an asylum for the august party, in the contingency of meeting the Tunisian squadron, Sicily being then at war with that regency. In July, she drove a French felucca privateer on shore, near Cape St. Vito, in Sicily, and sent three boats to bring her off; in the interim, the peasantry boarded her, and landed the crew as prisoners, and as the former were well armed, and a considerable number of them advantageously ensconced among rocks within half pistol-shot of the privateer, the officer in command of the boats, after landing, and ineffectually endeavouring to persuade them to relinquish possession, returned to the ship. Had it been deemed expedient, she could have been brought off, but the delicate circumstance of her being on shore on the territory of an ally, rendered our claim too questionable to have justified so strong a measure, the execution of which would certainly have been attended with bloodshed. On revisiting her next day, she was found stripped of every thing, but the mast and gun. In August, the Cumberland finally rejoined the fleet in Hieres Bay, and a few days afterwards sailed for England, and touching at Mahon and Gibraltar on the passage, arrived at Portsmouth on the 17th of September, after an absence of three years and eight months. It must not be omitted, that while crossing the Bay of Biscay in a moderate breeze, a man fell overboard; Lieut. Matthew Lidden, R.N. a passenger, was sitting at the wardroom window, and immediately leaped out to save him: a bonetta line was towing astern, and the hook catching the lieutenant's clothes, slightly lacerated his side; however, a boat was promptly lowered, and picked up both himself, the man, and a noble Newfoundland dog, that was also a volunteer upon this occasion. This trifling incident is mentioned in justice to the above officer, as one of the least of many acts of gallantry that he has displayed in his professional career.

(To be continued.)

---

it was discovered that the mast was *five feet too short*, and as there was not one of the proper dimensions in store, it was replaced by the old and repaired mast: the mistake occasioned some mirth, at the expense of the dockyard.

* Dr. Clark, the celebrated traveller, relates that he was conveyed from Egypt to Constantinople in a Turkish *frigate*, that was unfurnished with any instrument for taking a celestial observation!

NAVAL PUNISHMENTS.

We promised in a preceding Number to insert the whole of the chapter in Capt. Hall's Second Series of Fragments, entitled "Suggestions towards diminishing the number and severity of Naval Punishments," but when we applied ourselves to the Second Edition of the work in question, which has just been published, we found the chapter so considerably augmented by the introduction of some anecdotes illustrative of the Author's main positions, that it exceeded the limits of our severely-pressed Journal. In this dilemma, we have resolved merely to extract the new matter, for the benefit of those who may not possess the Second Edition.

We may take occasion, however, to mention, that Capt. Hall's project, which he says has engaged his attention for a long period, is so extremely simple in itself, and so manifestly grounded on sound principles, and withal has been found so effective in practice by some of the ablest, kindest, and most experienced officers in the service, that it merits consideration whether it should not receive the only sanction which can render it effective—we mean the positive enactment of the Board of Admiralty. The mere reasonableness of the thing will never be sufficient to render it binding enough for any extensive practical purpose.

In two words, Capt. Hall's opinion is, that if every Captain were obliged by positive regulation to adopt the following course, a great diminution in the number of punishments would ensue, that those which were inflicted would be less severe, and that the discipline of the fleet would be essentially improved. His plan is to make it imperative on officers in command to defer specifying what the amount of any punishment is to be *until twenty-four hours have elapsed after the offence has been inquired into.* He also considers that great practical advantages would arise from investigating all offences between the hours of nine in the morning and noon, a period when all parties are likely to be free from those exciting causes which need not be particularly alluded to, but which do often interfere with the course of justice when the inquiry takes place after the men have had their grog, the officers their dinner, or the captain his claret. The present regulations of the Navy require that twelve hours should elapse between the inquiry and the punishment, but this is scarcely enough—the most salutary check on intemperance of any kind is a night's rest—and surely when so serious an affair as corporal punishment is in question, it is not requiring too much of all captains to defer passing sentence till they have consulted their pillow at least once. We again recommend the perusal of the whole chapter to our professional readers.

"I could relate many instances of injustice arising from precipitancy in awarding punishment, and of the beneficial effects of systematically deferring to pronounce sentence till the heat of the moment had passed; but the following anecdotes, for the accuracy of which I can vouch, seem sufficient to arrest the attention to good purpose.

"Two men-of-war happened to be cruising in company; one of them, a line-of-battle ship, bearing an admiral's flag; the other, a small frigate. One day, when they were sailing quite close to each other, the signal was made from the large to the small ship to chase in a particular direction, implying that a strange sail was seen in that quarter. The look-out man at the maintop-mast-head of the frigate was instantly called down by the captain, and severely punished on the spot, for not having discovered and reported the stranger before the flag-ship had made the signal to chase.

"The unhappy sufferer, who was a very young hand, unaccustomed to be aloft, had merely taken his turn at the mast-head with the rest of the ship's company, and could give no explanation of his apparent neglect. Before it

was too late, however, the officer of the watch ventured to suggest to the captain, that possibly the difference of height between the masts of the two ships might have enabled the look-out man on board the admiral to discover the stranger, when it was physically impossible, owing to the curvature of the earth, that she could have been seen on board the frigate. No attention, however, was paid to this remark, and a punishment due only to crime, or to a manifest breach of discipline, was inflicted.

"The very next day the same officer, whose remonstrance had proved so ineffectual, saw the look-out man at the flag-ship's mast-head again pointing out a strange sail. The frigate chanced to be placed nearly in the direction indicated; consequently she must have been somewhat nearer to the stranger than the line-of-battle ship was. But the man stationed at the frigate's mast-head declared he could distinguish nothing of any stranger. Upon which the officer of the watch sent up the captain of the main-top, an experienced and quick-sighted seaman, who, having for some minutes looked in vain in every direction, asserted positively that there was nothing in sight from that elevation. It was thus rendered certain, or, at all events, higbly probable, that the precipitate sentence of the day before had been unjust: for, under circumstances precisely similar (or even less favourable), it appeared that the poor fellow could not by possibility have seen the stranger, for not first detecting which he was punished!

"I must give the conclusion of this painful story in the words of my informant, the officer of the deck, one of the kindest, and bravest, and best of men: 'I reported all this to the captain of the ship, and watched the effect. He seemed on the point of acknowledging that his heart smote him; but pride prevailed, and it was barely an ejaculation that escaped. So much for angry feelings getting the better of judgment!'

"I have seldom related this anecdote in any company, without observing that it drew from those who listened to it a marked and unqualified expression of censure. And the case, I admit, is a very strong one. But before we condemn without mercy the object of our indignation, I would venture to ask, which man amongst us all, whether at sea in the command of a ship, or on shore at the head of a regiment, or in the sober management of a mercantile house, or even in the tranquil jog-trot of a family in the most private station of life, can honestly and fearlessly say that he has never, in moments of haste, been guilty of acts, if not quite so severe, at least as unjust? I have already admitted that I myself am not of this fortunate number, and I may therefore be permitted to urge upon others the necessity of interposing as many artificial checks as possible upon the excitements of passion.

"In the mean time, the following anecdote will help to relieve the disagreeable impression caused by the incident just related, without obliterating the salutary reflections which it seems calculated to trace on the mind of every well-disposed officer.

"Three sailors, belonging to the watering party of a man-of-war on a foreign station, were discovered by their officer to have strayed from the well at which the casks had been filled. These men, it appears, instead of assisting in rolling the heavy butts and puncheons across the sand, preferred indulging themselves in a glass of most insidious tipple, called Mistela in Spanish, but very naturally "transmogrified" by the Jacks into Miss Taylor. The offenders being dragged out of the pulperia, were consigned, without inquiry, to the launch, though they had been absent only a few minutes, and were still fit enough for work. The officer of the boat, however, happening to be an iron-hearted disciplinarian, who overlooked nothing, and forgave no one, would not permit the men to rejoin the working party, or to touch a single cask; but when the boat returned to the ship, had the three offenders put in irons.

"When these circumstances were reported to the captain, in the course of

the day, so much acrimony was imparted to his account by the officer, that the captain merely said, 'I shall be glad if you will defer stating this matter more fully till to-morrow morning, after breakfast: take the night to think of it.' To-morrow came, and the particulars being again detailed, even more strongly and pointedly, by the officer, the captain likewise became irritated, and, under the influence of feelings highly excited, had almost ordered the men up for immediate punishment. Acting, however, upon a rule which he had for some time laid down, never to chastise any one against whom he felt particularly displeased, without at least twenty-four hours' delay, he desired the matter to stand over till the following morning.

"In the mean time, the men in confinement, knowing that their offence was a very slight one, and feeling that it had been caused very much by the neglect of the petty officers of the watering party, laid their heads together, and contrived, by the aid of the purser's steward, to pen a supplicatory epistle to the captain. This document was conveyed to its destination by his servant, a judicious fellow, who happened to have heard amongst the people on the lower deck that the case was really a hard one. Though it proved no easy matter to decipher the hieroglyphics written by the prisoners under the dingy light of a purser's tallow glim, it appeared evident that there must have occurred several extenuating circumstances in their history, which had not been brought forward before. The only remark, however, which the captain made, was, that the letter ought not to have been brought to him; and that his servant was quite out of order, in being accessary to any proceeding so irregular.

"The steward took the hint, and recommended the prisoners to appeal to the complaining officer. Accordingly, next day, when the captain went on deck, that person came up and said,

"'I have received a strange letter, sir, from these three fellows whom I complained of yesterday; but what they say does not alter my opinion in the least.'

"'It does mine, however,' observed the captain, after he had spelled through it, as if for the first time.

"'Indeed, sir!' exclaimed the other; adding, 'I hope you won't let them off on this account.'

"'I tell you what it is,' quietly remarked the captain: 'I would much rather you let them off than that I should; for it strikes me, that all the useful ends of discipline will be much better served, and your hands, as well as mine, more essentially strengthened, by your taking the initiative in this business instead of me. My advice to you therefore is, that when I go below, you send for the men, and say to them you have read their statement, and that, although it does by no means excuse, it certainly explains, and so far extenuates their offence, that you feel disposed to try what your influence with the captain can do to get them off altogether.'

"'I do not see the force of your reasoning,' answered the offended officer; 'nor can I conscientiously trifle with the service in the manner proposed. I thought at first, and I still think, that these men ought to be punished; and as far as I am concerned, they shall certainly not escape.'

"'Well, well,' cried the captain, 'you will not, I hope, deny that I am the best judge of what is right and fitting to be done on board this ship; and I tell you again, that I consider the discipline will be better served by your being the mover in this case, than by my taking the affair, as you wish me to do, entirely out of your hands. Will you do as I suggest?'

"'I beg your pardon, sir, but really I cannot, consistently with my sense of duty, adopt the course you propose. I think it right to insist, as far as I can with propriety, on these men being punished.'

"'Turn the hands up for punishment, then!' said the captain to the first lieutenant, who had been walking on the other side of the deck during this colloquy; 'and let the three prisoners be brought on deck.'

"The gratings were soon rigged under the mizen-stay—the quarter-masters placed with their seizings on either side—the boatswain and his mates (with the terrible weapons of naval law barely concealed under their jackets) arranged themselves in a group round the mast—while the marines, with fixed bayonets and shouldered arms, formed across the quarter-deck; and the ship's company, standing in two double rows, lined the sides of the deck. Not the slightest sound could be heard; and a person coming on deck blindfolded might have thought the ship lay in dock, without a soul on board.

"In the middle of the open space before the hatchway stood the three wretched culprits, with their hats off, and their eyes cast down in hopeless despair, but, to all outward appearance, firm and unmoved, as became men whose duty and habit it is to face every danger, sorrow, and hardship, without flinching.

"When all was declared ready, the first lieutenant descended to the cabin, but returned again almost immediately, followed closely by the captain, in his cocked hat and sword, grasping in one hand the well-known roll of paper containing the articles of war, and in the other the master-at-arms' report of prisoners. Every head was uncovered at his appearance; and as he lifted his hat in answer to this salute, he laid it on the capstan, against which he leaned while reading the article under which the delinquents had fallen.

"'Now,' said he, addressing the three prisoners, 'you have been found guilty of an offence against the good order and discipline of this ship, which cannot be permitted, and which must positively be put a stop to. Heretofore it has not occurred, and I trust this will be the last case. Do you admit that you deserve punishment?'

"No answer.

"'Have you any thing to advance why you should not be punished?'

"The fellows nodged one another, scraped the deck with their feet, fumbled with their hats and waistbands, and muttered something about 'a letter they had written to the officer what reported them.'

"'Letter!' exclaimed the captain; 'let me see it.'

"The epistle being handed to the captain, he read it aloud to the assembled ship's company, who listened with all their ears. At the conclusion he folded it up, and turning to the officer, asked,

"'What have you to say to this?'

"'Nothing, sir; nothing,' was the obdurate reply.

"'Well now, my lads,' observed the captain to the crew, after a pause of several minutes, 'I shall give you a chance. These fellows appear, by their own confession, to have done what they knew to be wrong; and accordingly, as you perceive, they have brought themselves close aboard of the gangway. It would serve them all perfectly right to give each of them a good sound punishment. But I am willing to hope, that if I forgive them on your account—that is to say, if I let them off in consideration of the good conduct of the ship's company, and in confidence of your all behaving well in future—they will be quite as much disposed to exert themselves to recover their characters, as if they had tasted the bitterness of the gangway; at all events, I'll try them and you for once. Pipe down!'

"It is only necessary to state further, that for nearly a year afterwards there occurred no instance of drunkenness or neglect at the watering-parties."

SOUTHERN AFRICA AND THE BRITISH COLONIES.

At a time when the great discovery made by the enterprising Landers has again called general attention to the subject of African geography, it will be gratifying, not only to those who have so long and laudably exerted themselves to remove the dark veil that has hitherto concealed, in a great measure, that vast continent from the view of civilization, but of all who take an interest in the progress and advancement of geographical science, to know that another work is now in the course of publication, that promises to throw much new and interesting light on some of the southern districts of the great and mysterious land of marvels.

The Portuguese, as is well known, have always shown themselves more jealous of their colonies than of their women,—a proof, we think, that our worthy allies are no great judges either of ladies or of colonies, for the Senhoras not only require, like all the rest of the charming sex, a little occasional looking after, but they are in fact well worthy of it, being not only pretty and intelligent, but possessing, in an eminent degree, the brightest gem of female excellence—*charity;* whereas it is really difficult to say what attractions the remaining Portuguese colonies possess that could possibly excite the temptation of strangers. The Brazils were completely closed against foreigners till the removal of the house of Braganza to Rio Janeiro; and the kingdoms of Angola and Benguela, on the south western coast of Africa, are, to this day, almost inaccessible to travellers, and likely enough to remain so until some new revolution shall burst asunder the bars that keep curiosity and enterprise aloof. It was owing to accidental circumstances only, therefore, that Dourville, a French merchant, was enabled to proceed from the Brazils to the Portuguese settlements in Congo. He landed at St. Phillips de Benguela, in Dec. 1827, well provided with letters and with articles of trade, consisting principally of ardent spirits; and after traversing the Portuguese territories and various independent countries, even to the northward of the equator, he again embarked at the port of Ambritz, on his return to South America. He travelled over more than 2000 French leagues, under the greatest dangers as to health and life; and though he never suffered from the fevers of the country, it is not likely that, without the numerous troop of blacks who were in his service, he would ever have found his way back to *la belle France*, in order to enlighten the world by his adventures, for, as it was, he had difficulty enough in escaping the constant attacks of the natives, whose rapacity was excited by his wealth, and particularly by his brandy. Some of the tribes amongst whom he ventured are even represented as cannibals, who if they have not, as stated by Battel and others, actual markets for human flesh, are willing enough to feast upon it on grand occasions: the flesh of white men is, from its rarity probably, deemed a peculiar delicacy. Two or three years previous to Dourville's arrival in the country, one of the negro tribes he fell in with are said to have devoured a Portuguese Mulatto who had lost the caravan with which he was travelling; and our enterprising Frenchman had himself, at one time, a narrow escape from being roasted, the sacred spits having already been brought out from the temple for his especial benefit. Now we can well understand that the prospect of

being roasted in honour of an African fetish, to be devoured by Negro jaws, and then washed down with his own good Cognac, could not have been very agreeable to a philanthropic Frenchman; but we would, nevertheless, recommend to Monsieur Dourville to be moderate in expressing his *sentiments d'horreur* on the subject, for we live in a liberal age, that is peculiarly indulgent to foreign manners, and it might be made matter of unpleasant enquiry how far it is worse for uneducated negroes to feast upon a stray Frenchman, than for the ladies and gentlemen of *la nation la plus sentimentale de l'Europe* to feast right heartily on *pâtés de foie gras* whenever the opportunity offers. The process of spitting and roasting a Frenchman, if not a very laudable one according to our notions, is at least a short one; whereas the horrible and protracted tortures inflicted upon poor ducks and geese, in order to give them the necessary degree of disease and corruption to fit them for these *pâtés*, last for weeks together, and is enough not only to arrest but to reverse all but a Gallic appetite. We pass over the fact of cannibalism, though often charged, having never been proved against any of the African tribes; trifles of this sort are not likely to stand in the way of French sentimental declamation.

The manners and customs of the natives of that part of Africa visited by our traveller, though described as being in many particulars peculiar to themselves, bear, nevertheless, a strong resemblance to those of all the other tribes composing the great negro family. They are polygamists, without however confining their women, and seem, like too many other African nations, to place little or no value on female chastity. In some districts the men are even proud of the conquests made by their wives, regularly appropriating to themselves the presents made to their better halves, and speculating sharply upon the fines to which successful lovers are occasionally condemned for crim. con. in Congo, as well as in other more civilized countries. These people prepare from grain a fermented and intoxicating liquor, of which they drink to excess, though they prefer ardent spirits brought from Europe and America. With brandy Dourville could purchase anything; but, on the other hand, the tricks and importunities of the great men and chiefs to obtain some of this delicious beverage, occasioned him endless vexation and annoyance.

The most dreadful superstition reigns in these countries; the natives pay the blindest and most implicit obedience to the magicians and fetish-men, who are supposed to interpret the command of their Deities. No doctor attempts to prescribe for a patient till the magician had revealed to him the cause of the disease. When a judge has to decide a difficult case between two contending individuals, he places before them two cups of liquor, the one of which is poisoned and the other harmless, and leaves them to draw lots for the choice; the guilty party, however, is generally well provided with antidotes bought from the fetish-man who has prepared the draught; so that the innocent, trusting to the protection of innocence, are in fact the most frequent victims of these African ordeals. Superstition triumphs even over the love of brandy, and it was often in vain that Dourville, when in haste to have some work done, tempted the men with a double portion of this delectable beverage; they invariably began with mystical rites, that not unfrequently lasted till the time for the performance of

their task had elapsed. As in all barbarous countries, so also in Congo are the women heavily oppressed; the hardest work, from which the wives of chiefs and princes are not exempted, falls to their share, whilst the men lie idling in the shade or occupied at the most in platting mats.

The physical geography of Congo cannot fail, we should think, to be considerably enriched by this interesting journey. The land is described as rising rapidly towards the interior, and Dourville estimates the height of the extensive plains that surround the Zembi mountains at 7000 feet above the level of the sea, and the highest point of the mountain itself 14,000 feet above the same level. This mountain is situated about twenty-five miles south of the equator. Though some of the early travellers speak of the existence of volcanoes in these countries, it remained for our enterprising Frenchman to make the actual discovery of such a mountain; he found one still in a state of activity on the frontiers of Benguela and Angola, but there were no appearances indicating that any great eruption had of late years taken place. The celebrated Danville was the first who laid down an inland sea, of vast length but of little breadth, on the maps of Africa: it was situated, according to this great geographer, about 100 leagues from the east coast, and called the Marani Sea. In modern times the belief in the existence of this mighty mass of water has rather declined, and Dourville's report greatly tends to strengthen the doubts entertained on the subject; for it is stated, that whilst the traveller was with the King of the Maluas, whose capital is represented as being about semi-distant between the east and the west coast, he there saw negroes who had come all the way from the east coast in order to lay a tribute of salt at the feet of this African monarch, and who, on being questioned about the Marani, all declared that they had not crossed any considerable body of water in their journey from the coast: the result of every other enquiry tended to confirm this statement. It would be unfair to make any remarks on an unfinished book, of which we know so little, and from which we hope that the world will yet derive both pleasure and instruction, but we trust the reader will give us credit for being a little sceptical as to the power of the king, whose dominions reached half across the continent of Southern Africa.

But, if Dourville heard nothing of the Marani Sea, he discovered another, that, less in size, seems greater in point of curiosity. This dead sea, for such is the meaning of the Kalimga-Caffna, its African name, is situated between the third and fifth degrees of southern latitude, and twenty-six east of Paris. All the surrounding hills, abounding in bitumen, are of volcanic origin and completely bare, nor is any living creature found to exist in the sulphur and naptha impregnated waters of the lake, whose pestiferous exhalations infect the whole of the surrounding country. On the other hand, several streams take their rise from this sea; one of these falls into a river that joins the Atlantic, whilst another flows in the direction of the Indian Ocean. Just, indeed, was the remark of the ancients, who said, that Africa was fertile in all the wonderful productions of nature.

The flattering accounts occasionally given of the Portuguese possessions in Africa, are all, according to Dourville, exceedingly exaggerated. He declares, in like manner, that the missionaries, though established

for upwards of three centuries in the country, have as yet done nothing to forward Christianity or civilization among the negro tribes.

We had intended this very brief notice of Dourville's travels as a vehicle for a few remarks of our own on the general situation of all, and the precarious situation of some of the most valuable British colonies; but such speculations would be entirely out of place at a moment when no opinion can be formed as to the line of conduct that may in future be pursued by the government of the country in regard to any of the great leading features of its home, foreign, or colonial policy; we must confine ourselves therefore to the statement of a few circumstances bearing upon the subject generally.

It is a curious but melancholy fact, that European colonization, instead of benefiting, has invariably tended to the detriment, ruin, or entire destruction of the original population of the country to which it extended. This result, though not exactly contemplated by the colonists themselves, was never very seriously sought to be prevented. The Spaniards, seeking only gold and conquest, reduced the natives to real if not nominal slavery in order to make them work the mines, and after destroying the entire population of the Charibbean islands, reduced the great Indian nations they found on the continent of South America to the few miserable and barbarous tribes still found scattered up and down that vast and fertile country, once constituting the powerful empires of Montezuma and of the Incas. The Dutch, with juster commercial views, were harsh and cruel task-masters, and being constantly jealous of their subjects and neighbours, naturally strove to keep them feeble, disunited, and ignorant. If not altogether undeserving of unmixed praise, less heavy at least is the charge to be brought against British colonists, for they nowhere sought the destruction of the natives, though in one hemisphere circumstances naturally led to such a result, whilst in other countries other causes prevented its being sufficiently atoned for. In North America, the hunter of the wilderness was naturally forced to fly from the approach of the cultivation which drove away the game that alone afforded him food and clothing: whilst in India the religious prejudices of the people prevented every kind of amalgamation between the conquered and the conquerors; peace and security of person, of property, and religion, were the only gifts that the Hindoos could receive at our hands, and for these great blessings, which were never known in India before the British conquest, that country has at least to thank us: the fault was not ours if more has not been given. At the Cape of Good Hope we only found the poor remnants of a barbarous tribe, reduced to the most abject state of servitude and degradation by the Dutch, and the natives of our Australian dominions seem by all accounts far below the reach of European improvements.

But though our colonial policy has been wiser and less cruel than that pursued by other nations, it has nowhere been founded on enlarged views of great national and philanthropic principles; it has, on the contrary, resulted only from chance, or from mere measures of occasional expediency, and has, with great benefit no doubt, produced also its ample share of bitterness, the cup of which is not yet, perhaps, entirely full. Were we asked upon what principles colonies ought

now to be founded, we would say that they should be formed with a view to the progress of civilization, by a gradual amalgamation of the settlers with the natives, and not merely with a view to conquest and dominion, where, as in the east, dominion leads not to civilization, or to the raising up, as in the west, of new nations, at the expense of the original possessors of the soil: we should improve instead of merely subduing or destroying the nations among whom we settle. A European colony should act like a torch in the darkness, gladdening by its brilliancy, and shedding light into the deepest recess of barbarian night and oppression; and though it may not have been very easy, if possible, for reasons already stated, to follow such a plan either in North America or in India, Africa, particularly since the discovery of the course of the Niger, evidently holds out the most promising field for such an establishment. Not only is the country bordering on the great inland waters fertile, but it is rich in mines, and in all the valuable productions of the most favoured tropical climates. The natives also, instead of being prevented from union and amalgamation with Europeans by religious prejudices, like the Hindoos and Mahometans, or by character and pursuits like the Hunters of America, are by disposition and by the state of civilization to which they have already attained, particularly open to improvement. The African negro is no longer a nomade of the wilderness; he is, on the contrary, a settled agriculturist, a keen trader, and generally, as we can assert from personal knowledge, of a cheerful and happy disposition, fond of show and pleasure, but of almost incurable idleness; never to be depended on for labour or exertion, and though not naturally cruel or sanguinary, yet liable to be excited, like all barbarians, to sudden acts of fierceness. The negro is in mechanical arts a clever and ingenious workman; he is also a musician, and even a poet. We have ourselves had the honour of being celebrated in African poetry, but there seems little of greatness, if we may so express ourselves, about his character; nothing of that dignity, barbaric dignity if you like, that, even in a lower state of civilization, still distinguishes the lingering remnants of some of the North American tribes, who dwell farthest from the reach of that European contact that seems to act like poison on all the better qualities of these unhappy people. The officers who served in Upper Canada during the war, will recollect the striking difference that existed between the warrior tribes that joined us from the far western countries, and the miserable rabble bands of our own immediate neighbours. But what the negro wants in elevation of character, he makes up for in docility,—a quality that, were a proper use made of it, might lead to the gradual civilization of their entire race.

We know, indeed, that the very name of Africa is, in general estimation, ominous of fevers and death; but this prevalent opinion of the insalubrity of the climate is occasioned solely by the unhealthy stations Europeans have either visited or occupied on the coast. Swamps, marshes, long tracts of mud-coast left exposed on the retreat of the tide, naturally produce, under the almost vertical rays of a tropical sun, exhalations destructive to European constitutions; but situations better chosen and farther inland may, nevertheless, prove as healthy as any warm climate can be. La Guira, Porto Cavallo, Portobello, and Vera Cruz, are, perhaps, the most unhealthy spots on the globe; yet

the first is only a couple of hours' ride from the once beautiful and healthy town of Caraccas; the second is four-and-twenty hours' journey from the delightful districts of Valencia; Portobello is only seventy miles from Panama, the Montpellier of South America; while Vera Cruz forms the very entrance that leads to the salubrious and elevated plains of Mexico. Under the same latitude, and with nearly the same natural productions, we must, of course, have nearly the same phenomena of climate to look for in Africa. Sierra Leone, Senegal, and the Gold Coast, may be pest-houses, and the general climate of the country be very good notwithstanding: no rational person condemns the climate of Italy because death dwells in the Pontine Marshes and at Pæstum. We may add, that the British West India possessions, (and we purposely make the distinction,) once considered so unhealthy, are now just as salubrious in point of climate as any of the southern districts of Europe. The discovery of the course of the Niger naturally fixes the line of country in which a European colony might now be established to advantage, and the junction of the Tchada with that river, where both streams are large and navigable, and where a considerable African trading town already exists, seems admirably calculated for the purpose. The marshy Delta formed at the mouth of the river must, of course, be avoided. The kind of colonies we are here contemplating, must be of a military, commercial, instructive and didactic nature, if, for want of a better, we may so use the latter word; that is, they must be under military government, and sufficiently strong, without aiming at conquest, to make themselves respected, for all savages are naturally of a bullying disposition, and easily mistake moderation for weakness. They should also form *entrepôts* for goods, and not only afford to the natives the means of instruction, but encourage them in seeking for it.

It may, perhaps, be urged against our theory of civilizing Africa by means of such colonies, that the negroes have everywhere retrograded, instead of profiting by their intercourse with Europeans, as by far the most respectable of their tribes are, like the North American Indians, to be found only at a distance from all contact with the Whites. But a very little reflection will show that, true and discreditable as this melancholy fact certainly is, it tells in nothing against the project for which we are contending, but only proves, on the contrary, how much we have yet to atone for. The intercourse of Europeans with Africa was for a long time confined principally to slave-trading transactions, a pursuit injurious to morality when followed in any degree, but necessarily destructive of all good feelings and principles where it constituted the sole pursuit. Feeble slave factories, situated on the most unhealthy parts of the coast, forced to purchase, by the meanest degradations, protection from every petty African despot, and exchanging only rum and gunpowder for human flesh, could tend to nothing but the demoralization of the tribes by whom they were surrounded; for savage men would too easily become confirmed in their vices by the example of those who evidently possessed greater knowledge. Some of the Portuguese colonies, though founded on other principles, have, it is true, produced as yet no very beneficial effects; but the Portuguese, with many noble points of character, are, as we have ample cause to know, an indolent people, capable of being roused to exertion

only by the strongest excitement, and far more likely, when left to themselves, to sink back into barbarism than to aid other nations in throwing off its shackles.

We are here forced, very much against our present inclination, to say a few words on the subject of West India slavery, because some of the foregoing remarks in favour of African character, and its fitness for receiving instruction, may be construed into a support of the present doctrine of negro emancipation, so keenly advocated by a party in the country, whereas nothing in fact can be farther from our view. Without attempting to defend any abstract principles of slavery, the very name of which is abhorrent to British ears, we cannot comprehend by what rule of morality, justice, or expediency, an original act of wrong, sanctioned by the legislature, and the effects of which sit so lightly as West Indian slavery, can be possibly atoned for by another and a greater act of injustice, that could benefit no one, but certainly cause the utter destruction of every West India merchant and proprietor, as well as of all the manufacturers and ship-owners, dependent for employment on the continued prosperity of the West India Islands. Should an act of emancipation ever be seriously contemplated, it will not be sufficient, even if it can be done, to remunerate the planters for the loss of their slaves; it will be necessary, unless an act of direct spoliation is to be committed, to remunerate all those who, under legislative sanction and encouragement, have invested property in the West Indies; for no man in the slightest degree acquainted with the negro character and the situation of the colonies, can for a moment entertain an idea so wild and chimerical, as to suppose that a single farthing of the vast capital now embarked in the West India trade, can be saved, if those colonies are to depend for cultivation on the voluntary labour of liberated negroes.

How does this, it may be asked, agree with our previous character of the African race, and the comparative facility of instructing and civilizing them? Perfectly. The negro character contains the elements by which the race may be gradually brought within the pale of civilization, but it must be by a work of labour and exertion, and the smaller the community to be acted upon, and the more circumscribed the sphere left open for the developement of the faculties to be called into action, the more difficult and tedious must the labour naturally be! The torch of civilization, skilfully applied to the mass of African population, composed of men of all ranks, grades, and pursuits, can hardly fail to raise a flame, the beneficial effects of which may be expected to extend, by rapid degrees, to the most distant and benighted of the negro tribes: as the spark, that could neither light nor warm a single log or billet, will, when thrown into the midst of a pile, by igniting the minutest and most inflammable fibres of each piece, produce a fire that shall soon reach the inmost core of the hardest wood. But our West India colonies are in general not only of very limited extent, but even the largest of these afford no openings for that kind of individual exertion by which civilization must everywhere commence. The negro communities there are also very small, and composed entirely of a class who are by law, in the colonies, what a numerous part of the European community are by circumstance,—mere labourers at the will of others, and, therefore, least likely to make any other early

or immediate use of freedom, than to indulge in that idleness and sensuality, the tendency to which constitutes the leading feature of negro character. Want, it may be said, will force them to work; from hand to mouth perhaps, but certainly to no greater extent; whilst it is only by skilful, continued, and systematic labour, that the high state of artificial West India cultivation can be kept up. From free negroes this sort of labour is not to be expected, and without it the colonies cannot exist a single year. By the conduct we now pursue towards these once-flourishing colonies, we are, in fact, giving a premium to the foreign plantations that still carry on the slave trade.

It has been said by high authority, that the legislature are at liberty to break the natural contract entered into by the planter and the country, the former having, by the ill-treatment of his slaves, deviated from his part of the engagement. We are happy, from a tolerably long acquaintance with the West Indies, and from being totally unconnected with West India interest, to give to this assertion the most distinct and unqualified contradiction. That the West Indians have some traits of character resulting from their peculiar situation, it is natural enough to suppose; and considering how much we are the children of circumstance, habit, and education, it is easy to understand that the planters and merchants of the Charibbean Islands are not exactly the same sort of men they would have been had chance placed them as landholders, manufacturers, or lawyers in Europe. But it by no means follows that they are, therefore, worse men; on the contrary, we feel confident that, grade for grade, they would not lose by a comparison with any society in Europe, but would, in many points, surpass and have considerably the advantage of those with whom any contrast could be fairly instituted. The Creoles are a warm-hearted, generous, and hospitable people, and as far as our own observation goes, kind, attentive, and humane to their slaves and subordinates: this their own interest naturally dictates, and those who accuse them of every species of barbarity, should recollect that men look to their interest in the West Indies as well as in other countries, even where, as in the present case, it happens "to lean to virtue's side."

As to the acts of cruelty charged against the West Indians, we can only say that, considering the pains taken to bring forward instances of the kind, together with the encouragement given to falsehood and exaggeration, the wonder only is that so few cases have apparently been established. Bad men may, no doubt, be found in the West Indies as well as in other countries, but not in a greater proportion, or in a greater degree; and there are more acts of callous and cold-hearted cruelty legally committed in London during a single week, than have ever been perpetrated during the course of an entire year in the whole of the West India Islands put together. The debtor and creditor laws produce, in the metropolis alone, more real misery, suffering, vice, and degradation, than could at any time be discovered in the whole population of our slave colonies. A work, we believe, is now in progress, that will go far to affright the world, by exposing to view the mighty mass of sin and suffering occasioned by these iniquitous laws; and it will prove to the real philanthropist, that there is no necessity for crossing the Atlantic in search of exaggerated and imaginary wrongs, while such ample scope for generous exertions is still to be

found at home. It is a curious circumstance, though but distantly connected with the immediate part of our subject, that numerous as have been the efforts made by men, famous, of course, for their knowledge of human nature, arithmetic, and foreign politics, to obtain destructive reductions of the army and navy, no steps have ever been taken to effect a reduction of lawyers and law-officers, who, strange to say, constitute, without including the unpaid magistracy, a far more numerous host than the whole of the army and navy of Great Britain put together. Now, as all classes of lawyers are better paid than naval and military men, this legal army must necessarily *hang* very heavily on the industry of the country, and may, therefore, without any invidious allusion whatever, be more appropriately termed the *hanging weight*, than the worse paid part of the United Service can be termed the dead weight.

We repeat, that, at a time when no opinion can be formed as to what may be the future line pursued by the country in regard to its colonial and maritime policy, it would be idle to offer any lengthened speculations on the subject, but viewing the matter as men were wont to do when "Britannia ruled the waves," and when Britons were determined to uphold to the last that supremacy so bravely won and so nobly maintained, we should say that, considering the changes the last few years have produced in and out of Europe, that the world has, in fact, been enlarged, and that entire fleets and armies may, at no distant period, be called upon to act where a single ship or an adventurous traveller were formerly seen only by accident, it behoves us to have possessions capable of affording protection, shelter, and assistance to our armaments even on the most distant stations. For this purpose we think that the island of St. Catharine, on the coast of Brazil, Juan Fernandez, in the Pacific, and Lemnos, in the Mediterranean, should be acquired. The two first might, no doubt, be cheaply bought from the party-coloured empire and republic to which they belong; and though the Turks are under no great obligations to us, they might probably be induced to cede to us the Volcanian Isle, as our object in possessing it could only be to aid them in case of need, and to watch the Russian armaments in the Black Sea. Cyprus was formerly held as a tenure of the English Crown, and we do not see that its capture by the Turks affects our supremacy should we be disposed to claim it: we mention this, however, as a mere matter of curiosity, and certainly without the least wish of seeing it acted upon, unless for the benefit of its present possessors and inhabitants. We should grieve, indeed, were this country ever to join the crusade against the Turks, so long and disagreeably preached up, though surely not without some "consideration," by the radical press.

We know of no station in the Baltic, save the Island of Zealand, and of that it is now too late to speak. Bornholm, we understand, has no good harbour: very little is indeed known of the island, which is said to contain many curious remains of Scandinavian antiquity, of which the manners, customs, and traditions of its inhabitants, are not the least interesting.

FOREIGN MISCELLANY.

RETROSPECT OF MONTHLY MEMORABILIA.

July 5th, 1809. The murderous conflict of *Wagram* began on this day, and the inhabitants of Vienna watched its progress from the walls, and towers, and roofs of their dwellings, with anxious and anguished hearts, from break of day to night. A furious attack, made upon Baumersdorf by the French forces in the afternoon, threatened to decide the contest at that early hour in their favour; three Austrian regiments fell back in disorder, and their antagonist's advance were rapidly gaining the height, when the gallant Archduke Charles brought up the Erbach regiment (now that of his Grace of Wellington) and arrested their onset. This achievement has ever since entitled the regiment to the distinguished honour (peculiar, we believe, to the Austrian service), of playing the "grenadier's march." The French were driven down the heights, and made their retreat in haste across the Russback. In the thick of the battle, the Archduke Charles was marked by a French rifleman, and wounded on the right eyebrow. "Your Highness is wounded!" exclaimed Delmotte, the Adjutant-General. "*And is this a moment for wasting a thought upon it?*" answered the Archduke in a tone of reprehension. A second attack by the Saxon corps was made in the dusk of the evening upon Wagram, but it likewise miscarried; and the well merited eulogy which Bernadotte passed upon the gallantry of their German allies, exposed him to a violent burst of displeasure from Napoleon's lips. At break of day the next morning, the inhabitants of Vienna were roused from their slumbers by the roar of cannon. The contest was renewed with redoubled fury. Two hundred thousand combatants stood opposed to each other, and nearly six hundred pieces of artillery vomited destruction amidst their ranks. The Austrian right wing and centre had obtained considerable advantages, a violent assault upon Aderklaa had been repulsed, and the left wing of the French army had been thrown back, when a masterly manœuvre enabled Napoleon to outflank the Austrian left at Markgraf Neustedt, and compelled the Archduke Charles to resign the contest and retreat upon the high road to Prague, which he effected in perfect order, disputing every inch of ground with his pursuers. It was a singular feature in this conflict, that the Austrians should have carried away with them a greater number of prisoners and cannon, than they left in the conquerors' hands. *(From an eye-witness.)*

July 29th, 1675. Gen. Montecuculi defeats the Comte de Lorges between *Sassbach* and *Altenheim*, and on the identical ground where, only two days before, the great Turenne had been killed by a cannon-ball. It is remarkable, that this signal calamity should have fulfilled a prophecy made a moment before by Lieut.-Gen. St. Hilaire, whose left arm was torn away by the same ball. His son was weeping by his side. "Let your tears flow for that great man," said St. Hilaire, pointing to Turenne, "not for me; I feel that you will lose a parent, but where will your country find another chief like him? Alas! what will be your fate, my wretched comrades?" Happily, that fate was to be rescued from the jaws of destruction by the illustrious Condé, who hastened from the Low Countries to assume the command of the French army.

FRANCE.

AN ADVENTURE IN LA VENDEE—(RELATED BY AN OFFICER IN THE FRENCH SERVICE).

On the 1st November last (1831), I was appointed to a lieutenancy in the first grenadier battalion of the 1st regiment, which was at that time doing duty with the forces in La Vendée; and I started with buoyant spirits and without loss of time for Chemilli, where the staff of our regiment was quartered. I reached it about three o'clock on the 4th of that month, and not

only found that I had been expected some hours sooner, but that it was planned for me to execute a commission, which would carry me and two grenadiers, as my escort, through a wood lying betwixt Chemilli and Chalonne. I, therefore, set out with my two men; and we pursued our course along the high road, between hedges and ditches, out of which I every instant expected a Chouan to start up, or at least, looked to be honoured with the flash of his pan; but everything continued quiet until we had advanced about a quarter of a mile into the wood. At a corner, however, where the road took a wind, we came upon a sort of paling, manned with fifteen armed peasants; I summoned the men to lay down their arms, and having repeated my summons three several times, we opened upon them. My own weapon consisted of a double-barreled gun; but it played me false, both barrels flashing bootlessly in their pans. The Chouans now set up a loud hurrah! gave fire, and all three of us fell. I have since learned, that one of my comrades was shot through the heart: the second appeared to have received a wound in the head; and, as for myself, a bullet grazed my right shoulder, and another passed right through me, between my shoulder and breast. I fell on the ground in a state of insensibility, and, upon opening my eyes, found that I had been completely plundered, and was lying with my two grenadiers in a ditch; the gore was streaming from both wounds, I was suffering under a degree of thirst that was almost insupportable, and the loss of blood had reduced me to so weak a state, that I had the greatest difficulty in the world to creep out of my grave, and look out for assistance. I observed a peasant's cabin hard by, and crawled towards it. An old man was standing at the door; I implored his help, and lay before him in so wretched a plight, that, although he was himself a Chouan and had a son who had made his escape from the conscription, he took pity upon me, stretched out his hands to assist me, and aided me in mounting an uncouth bed, on which a quantity of hay was piled together; his wife in great haste threw some coverlids over me, for, whilst they were consulting in a whisper upon what should be done with me, several rough voices were heard before the door: she had scarcely laid me under an injunction to keep myself as quiet as possible, when the Chouans, whose fire had brought me down, strode through the door into the only apartment the cabin contained,—which served for kitchen and bed-chamber, as well as lodging for man and beast. These men told my hosts, that they had shot three red-men, but, on their return from a short round, had found but two bodies; adding, that, as to the third, they knew he had made his way into their hut by the traces of blood leading towards it, and they were come to require he should be delivered up to them in order that they might put him effectually out of the way at once. The countryman swore, that he had not seen a soul alive, and would be the first to drive a bullet through a red-man's head as soon as he should fall in with him. The strangers vowed and maintained that I could be nowhere else, loudly charged him with playing the traitor, and swore by Heaven! they would track me wherever I might have found a covert. Upon this they separated, hunted about every crevice in the hut, pulled up the floor, drove their arms into the hay-heap, and I expected every instant to feel them plunging their bayonets into the bed. Whilst this was passing, I was lying almost at death's door; and my blood was running down from my shoulders through the hay, until it collected on the floor, where it caught the nose of a hog which lay beneath the bed, and set instantly upon gulping it down; the creature then began thrusting his snout into every corner of the hay in search of more, and at last got it close to my foot, at which he made a bite; this roused my small remaining stock of energy, and I drew my foot back, and gave the hog a kick upon the nape of his neck with all my might and main; at this, he set up a long, barking sort of a grunt, and brought the whole nest of Chouans about the bed. A little girl, the poor people's daughter, at this moment entered the cabin; she had watched the transaction from the outset, and made up her mind what plan to follow,

without exchanging a word with her parents. "Holla! what are you about there?" the girl inquired. "We are hunting after a red-man," answered the Chouans; "you must have seen him, ay?"—"To be sure I did," replied the girl, "I have just seen a couple of grenadiers carrying an officer off, on the road towards Bressieux." "Away, boys, away!" bellowed one of the men, who seemed to act as leader; "we must bring the red-dog down before he gets out of the wood;" and the whole crew instantly scampered off, that they might be in time to intercept my retreat. What with loss of blood, and the utter exhaustion to which this harrowing scene of alarm and anxiety had reduced me, I felt so completely overcome as to sink into a state of insensibility, from which I was not roused until the ensuing morning, when I was delighted to find myself under the protection of a platoon of my own company, aided by the regimental surgeon, who dressed my wounds and had me carried on a litter to Chemilli; my recovery was for a long time doubtful, and the medical attendants were astonished that the breath had not long before departed from my nostrils. But youth, and the fortunate direction which the bullet took, for this once saved me.

SPAIN.

A letter from Madrid gives the following, as the actual strength of the Spanish army:—

17	Regiments,	Infantry of-the-line, 3 battalions each.
7	ditto,	Light Infantry, 2
1	ditto,	(condemned) in Ceuta
4	ditto,	Foot Guards, 2 battalions each.
2	ditto,	Provincial Grenadier Guards, 3
2	ditto,	ditto, Yager Guards, 3
2	Battalions,	Sappers and Miners.
45	ditto,	Provincial Militia, of which 14 only are under arms.
1	ditto,	Moveable Royal Volunteers.
5	Regiments,	Heavy Cavalry, 4 squadrons each.
1	ditto,	Horse Grenadier Guards, ditto.
7	ditto,	Light Horse, ditto.
1	ditto,	Cuirassier Guards, ditto.
1	ditto,	Yager or Chasseur Guards, ditto.
1	ditto,	Lancers of the Guard, ditto.
1	Squadron,	Horse Artillery.

The writer does not give any further particulars of the corps of artillery, but we are enabled to state, from another source, that its whole strength amounts to 8000 men; that of the infantry to 33,000; of the cavalry to 5000; and of the militia to 30,000. According to this enumeration the regular army of the Spanish crown does not exceed 46,000 men.

The *French* establishment of five hundred *Generals* to a population of thirty two millions and a half appears insignificant, when compared with the Spanish array of *seven hundred* and upwards, in a population scarcely exceeding twelve millions!

BELGIUM.

BELGIAN ARMY.

When the *artillery* is fully organized, says a Belgian paper, it will consist of *fifteen batteries*, fourteen of which will be calculated for field-service. Each of these batteries is composed of eight pieces, namely, two mortars and four cannon; making a total of one hundred and twenty pieces. As respects the *cavalry*, we have, independently of the gen-d'armerie and regiment of guides, in all five regiments; namely, two regiments of light horse (*chevaux legers*), two of lancers, and one of cuirassiers. Our *infantry* musters twelve regiments of-the-line, three of sharpshooters, one foreign legion, and two free corps. If the twenty thousand *civic guards* be included, the whole strength of the army may be estimated at *eighty thousand* men; and to these may be added two batteries more, which will be shortly in an efficient state.

IMPROVED MORTARS.

On the same authority as that of the preceding article it is stated, that an improvement has been made in the form of the iron mortars cast at Liege. They are reported as being *eighteen feet in length*, and weighing *eleven thousand* eight hundred kilogrammes (26,020 lbs. English). Their length of shot is stated at two French miles (12,789 feet English).

TURKEY.

The Sultan has lately issued some fresh orders with respect to the treatment of prisoners of war, &c. He exhorts his troops to conduct themselves humanely towards them; to treat the wounded with the utmost regard for their wants and sufferings; and in cases where victory declares in favour of his arms, to deal with consideration towards their adversaries, and to bury their dead with decency. A new regiment, being the fourth, is to be added to the guards, and Asmi, one of the Sultan's adjutants, has been appointed its colonel, "having previously passed a rigid examination to his Highness' entire satisfaction."

GREECE.

A report from the Minister of the Marine to the National Assembly at Nauplia states the Greek Navy, in the month of July 1830, to have consisted of 92 vessels, large and small, including gun-boats. At the close of 1831, it had been reduced to 44; and the Navy List comprised 3 Rear-Admirals, 11 Captains, 115 Lieutenants and inferior officers, and 1500 seamen. The vessels engaged in trade are rapidly on the increase, and at the present moment, their number is rated at 2941.

REVIEWS AND CRITICAL NOTICES.

FIESCO — A TRAGEDY, &c. — We have before us a translation, by Colonel D'Aguilar, of Schiller's celebrated Tragedy, Fiesco. We had hoped to gain room for a more extended notice of the production of so accomplished a soldier as the translator of this powerful drama —and to have been able to quote instances of the fidelity with which he has rendered the spirit of the original: but as our limits prove inadequate to our means and desires, we shall still endeavour to combine justice with compression. It is needless to refer to the strong conceptions, the stirring action, and the vigorous flow of language of Schiller's prose Tragedy — to these characteristics it is evident that Colonel D'Aguilar has adapted the style of his translation, which, partly in blank verse, is simple without feebleness, and occasionally abrupt in purposed imitation of the emphatic original. It will prove an acquisition to every library, and to every student of the German drama.

STANDARD NOVELS — No. XIV. — THE PIONEERS. — One of the most powerful productions of a vigorous writer, Cooper, forms the 14th volume of this popular series, which, in selection and interest, unquestionably stands at the head of the publications of its class.

THE CABINET CYCLOPÆDIA—NOS. 29, 30, AND 31.—Volumes XXIX. and XXX. of this well-sustained work, comprize an important portion of THE HISTORY OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL, which is brought down to the deaths of Isabella and Ferdinand, the Founders of the Spanish Monarchy. From the complexity and frequent obscurity of the subject, we can hardly conceive a work of greater difficulty than a faithful compendium of the story of the Spanish Peninsula;—in the volumes before us there is unquestionable evidence of capacity for the task, and research in its execution.

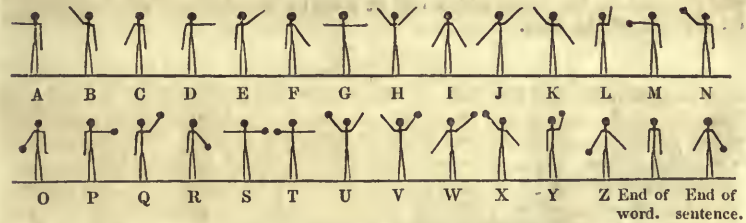
The Thirty-First Volume contains THE HISTORY OF SWITZERLAND, a compilation which partakes both of the difficulty and industrious performance of the last mentioned work.

We are again constrained, by want of room, to break off our Literary Notices, which we shall resume in our next, and, as soon as possible, bring up our unavoidable arrears in this department.

FIELD SIGNALS.

In a former Number of the Journal, a suggestion appeared for a system of field-signals, the communication to be kept up by means of a line of vedettes or signal-men. Something of the sort may be seen on a very limited scale, practised by the man who attends to the target at archery meetings; and Colonel Badcock, in his "outpost duties," seems to have a glimpse of the principle. The important advantages to be derived from a system of the sort must at once occur even to those who have never seen service. Across a river, for instance, or when a long line of posts is opposed to the enemy and threatened with attacks on different points, it would be invaluable; and sincerely hoping that something of the kind may be introduced *officially*, the following is suggested.

SIGNAL ALPHABET.



N.B. The dot at the *end of the arm* represents the cap.

The signals may be increased to a very great amount thus; a jump, a bow or stoop, a wave of the cap, a run or a walk to the right or the left *before* each of the above, will multiply their number by seven. The same *after*, will also multiply their number by seven. To make this quite clear, signal a, for instance, may be multiplied as follows—jump, a. stoop, a. wave, a. walk right, a. ditto left, a. &c. as also, a, jump. a, stoop. &c. These supernumerary signals might be used to express numbers, and general words such as "enemy," "infantry," "cavalry," "advance," "retreat," &c. Also general sentences, as "cavalry are advancing," "stand to your arms," "fall in and send baggage to the rear," which it will be useful to express by one signal. In cases where secresy is required, it will at once be seen that this system is directly applicable to the cypher alphabet in a former Number, to which the key is short, simple, and need never be written or printed, which is an important advantage over most others. At night, a dark lantern or torch in each hand (one of which may be occasionally obscured), would make communication quite easy at a considerable interval, and a considerable number of signals might be made, if not quite so many as by day. A detachment of corporals (for instance) might very soon be drilled to the system, so as at once to make every signal on the letter or meaning being given out like a word of command; one supernumerary at each end, to write down each letter, would be sufficient. In using the cypher, it will be seen by reference, that even these need not know the purport of what they write, which would be deciphered in a few minutes by any officer entrusted with the key and furnished with writing materials. In many cases, the whole army knowing a few of the "general sentences" and words would be useful; as in case of a sentry who might from a distance signal "cavalry," "false alarm," &c. Of course a word, when telegraphed, would be transmitted letter by letter along the whole line, (not fully spelt by the first man before the second began) for the sake of speed. The lying down or momentary disappearance of each man would signify "prepare to signal" along the line.

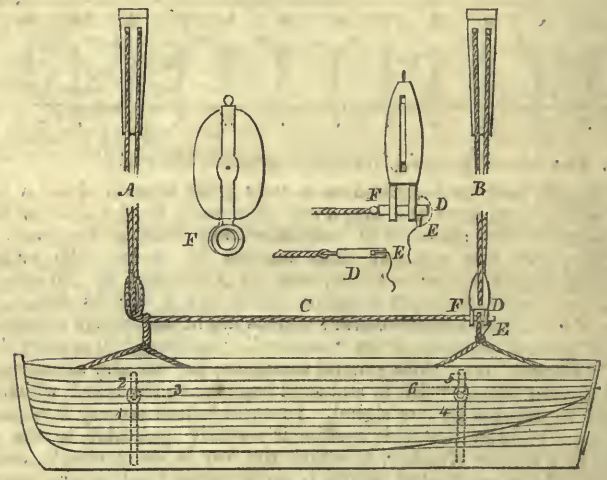
H.

AN IMPROVED METHOD OF SECURING BOATS IN THE TACKLES.

BY LIEUT. J. B. EMERY, ROYAL NAVY.

The difficulty experienced in unhooking boats' tackles, as at present fitted, when it is found necessary to lower a boat to pick up a man fallen overboard, or to board a vessel in a heavy sea,—the danger incurred in consequence by those who are praiseworthy volunteers on these occasions,—prompt me to submit for insertion in the United Service Journal, the accompanying sketch and explanation of what has been pronounced by several practical men, a great improvement on the method at present employed.

As it is necessary for small vessels to carry their boats as high as possible, I have substituted in lieu of slings, ring-bolts passing through the centre and secured to the keel, which will be seen by the dotted lines represented on the side of the boat.



EXPLANATION.

The foremost tackle, A, the block of which is fitted with a tail, C, tapered to the end and spliced to the bolt D, with a key, E, working in a score. This key has a lanyard affixed, which secures it in such a position as to prevent the bolt D from starting, after being passed through the eyes F, of the iron-strapped block of the aftermost tackle B.

The boat being lowered into the water, the aftermost slings become slack, therefore nothing more is to be done than instantly to cut, or if not in haste, to cast off the lanyard of the key E, when the boat becomes free by the bolt and tail of the foremost tackle slipping through the thimble of the foremost slings. This tail may be leathered in the nip and kept greased.

No. 1, ring-bolt secured through the keel and to the centre of the fore part of the foremost thwart.

No. 2, ring for tail C.

No. 3, foremost thwart.

No. 4, ring-bolt secured through the keel and to the centre of the afterpart of the aftermost thwart.

No. 5, ring for bolt D.

No. 6, aftermost thwart.

GENERAL CORRESPONDENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNITED SERVICE JOURNAL.

Remarks on the State of the Navy.
By Captain Charles Napier, C.B. R.N.

Mr. Editor,—No man who has any regard for his country can view the present state of Europe with indifference. No man can tell how long we may be allowed to remain at peace; and no naval officer who served during last war, and has been employed since, can look forward to a struggle with perfect confidence. The navies of other countries have been advancing in their knowledge and discipline in about the same proportion we have been retrograding; and when I remember that out of eight frigate actions (all well fought) in the last year of the war, four terminated in drawn battles, I can assure you, with the experience our late opponents have since acquired, we have not a very pleasing prospect before us. If it is true (and we have the authority of Lord Collingwood) that during the war it was difficult to find more than two or three lieutenants in line-of-battle ships who knew anything of their duty, what can we expect in the present day? In the former period we had an immense navy, ships constantly at sea, a great deal of hard service, some little encouragement, always an opening for enterprising and zealous officers, and young men of all classes finding their way into the service. In the present day, the navy is small, the ships rarely at sea, and under the late administration the guard ships lying in harbour not even manned; no encouragement whatever, no opening for zeal and enterprise, and young men of family and interest forming the major part of those who enter the service.

The generality of officers of the present day have no feeling of pleasure in carrying on the duty with smartness and alacrity; it is considered quite a task to keep their watch, they have neither zeal nor energy, and as for seamanship, they have not learnt it; more attention has certainly been paid to gunnery of late, which is the only improvement in the service, everything else has gone back. There is a laxity of discipline and a feeling of equality, ruinous to the service, pervading all classes of officers. Formerly a lieutenant was bred up to treat his captain with more respect than can now be obtained from a midshipman, and a reproof, now-a-days little cared for, was then of some avail. It is impossible to bring officers to a court-martial for ignorance or general want of zeal, they are not sensible of either the one or the other; they laugh at what is called the old school, and fancy themselves quite fit for captains when they actually ought not to be trusted with charge of a watch. This state of things is not at all surprising; the generality of midshipmen have no opportunity of learning their duty; more than half of them, on passing, cannot produce two years sea-log, and it is not at all uncommon to hear them avow they never saw a gale-o'-wind in their lives; they however manage to pass their examinations, unless indeed they come athwart hawse of some old and strict officer, and then many of them are turned back. Those who have the best interest are made lieutenants, and know but little; others are made later, and turn out well; but the greater proportion remain as midshipmen till they are disgusted, and if promoted at last, are good for nothing. With the exception of the first lieutenant, it is very rare that an experienced officer is employed; it requires too much interest, and is confined almost entirely to influential men, who do not find it necessary to exert themselves; should they be placed with a strict officer, who keeps them to their duty, they get removed into another ship. The life of a good first-lieutenant (and they are disappearing very fast) is that of a slave; he meets with very little assistance from the other officers; if he does his duty, a party is formed against him, and his

life is miserable, he is held up as every thing that is bad and disagreeable, and if he is not strenuously supported by his captain, he cannot go on. Few men will be found to carry this through: if he succeeds in keeping the ship in tolerable order, he gets no thanks, he has no hope of promotion; and when the ship is paid off, he retires to his family with the reputation of being a d——d disagreeable fellow, and more than probable no other captain will apply for him. The young men are not however to blame; the system of education and promotion is the cause of all the evils I have stated.

The well-being of the Navy depends so much on the manner it is administered, that to be acquainted with the merits of the Board of Admiralty, we have only to observe the condition and discipline of our ships; if we see good ships built, and those ships in high order, well commanded, officered, and manned, the officers and men diligent and doing their duty with zeal and alacrity, we may reasonably conclude that the Navy has been conducted by just and experienced men; if, on the other hand, we see a general relaxation of discipline, no emulation, no zeal, and the generality of our ships in bad or indifferent order, we may pronounce without hesitation that the Navy has been ruled with injustice and partiality, and that the promotion has been sacrificed to political purposes, and consequently bestowed on men without either talent or experience, to the total exclusion of meritorious and old officers, who are left to pine in penury and neglect, or if employed, are disgusted at seeing ignorant and foolish young men put over their heads, who are totally incapable of keeping their ships in the order they were wont to see during the war. Perhaps there never was an instance of so complete a change in any profession as that which the misrule of the late Board of Admiralty has since the peace produced in the Navy; a superficial observer might attribute this to the length of the peace, and a supposed diminution of promotion, but when I look at the Naval List, and observe that it contains almost as many names as at the end of the war, while the number of officers employed bear no comparison whatever to the war establishment; when I have seen the promotions bestowed almost entirely on young men of family and interest, the rapidity of whose rise has surpassed even what it was wont to do in war; when I have seen lieutenants made commanders who never kept an officer's watch in their lives, at the very time others were serving of upwards of twenty years standing, and midshipmen who had passed their examination from ten to fourteen years; can I be surprised at the total want of zeal and energy that existed throughout the whole service at the conclusion of the late administration, and which still continues to exist, though I hope in a lesser degree; or could I have wondered at any misfortunes that might have befallen us, in the event of a war with a well-disciplined Navy?

I have been upwards of thirty years in the service, and during that period, with the exception of commanders of sloops, first-lieutenants, and senior midshipmen of line-of-battle ships and frigates promoted in consequence of the capture of an equal or superior force, I have never seen anything like common justice in the distribution of promotion. A first-lieutenant might have been the best and most zealous officer in the Navy,—that was no recommendation for advancement. Captains performing dashing services on enemies' coasts, if influential men, could generally get an officer forward; but even then it depended more on the interest of the captain than the nature of the enterprise. I have seen many dashing services performed in the Mediterranean and elsewhere, where the First Lord of the Admiralty refused even the promotion of a midshipman; but in these stirring times of war, there was always hope, and young men without interest looked forward to some lucky chance for their promotion. Under all these circumstances, if it is true, and it admits not of a doubt, that good officers were rarely to be met with, can we be surprised at the Navy being now glutted with inexperienced men, many of whom have not been more than four years in a man-of-war, and perhaps not more than half that time at sea, while

others have been brought up almost entirely in guard-ships, and know more about driving a tandem or hunting a fox, than taking in a top-sail, or reefing a course in a gale of wind? It has been proposed by the Author of the Abuses and inconsistencies in the Naval service, to substitute a twenty-eight gunned frigate for the Naval College, and keep the young men in her, till qualified to do their duty in men-of-war; and there cannot be a doubt, if judiciously regulated, it would work well; nothing does more harm to the discipline of a ship, or is more annoying to sailors, than a parcel of squalling youngsters ordering them about; it is next to impossible that they can obey children, and if they do not, they are amenable to punishment; captains are often obliged to wink at their disobedience; the men do not know how to draw a line, become insolent, are punished, and very often the youngster is more to blame than the sailor.

The late Board of Admiralty very improperly took from the captains the nomination of youngsters, which has been restored by the present Board; they have also wisely discontinued furnishing collegians with ships after their first essay, and the Admiralty mates must be applied for before they are appointed; all this has done good, the collegians must exert themselves if they wish to be on a par with the other youngsters, and the mates are obliged to obtain a reputation to induce a captain to apply for them. In the event of a mid behaving ill, a captain has the power of depriving him of six months' time, and more, if necessary; this however does not work well; when a ship is paid off, it is very rare that a captain will put this in force, he is mollified before that time; the young man has behaved perhaps better, and he thinks the punishment severe, it is therefore rarely inflicted. The captain should be allowed to discharge a young man on the supernumerary list on the spot for bad conduct, and there he should remain till his behaviour justified a restoration: this would be a certain punishment for the offender, and an example to the rest. Nothing, however, I am convinced, would answer so well as a floating college; ships would then be provided with fewer and more efficient midshipmen; they would have more to do, and the duty would be better done. Another great evil to the service and the young men is, their being turned adrift every three years; few get ships immediately after paying off; they go on shore half men, half boys, acquire idle and vicious habits, and if they ever again get afloat, are rarely good for any thing. This is ruinous to the service, and ruinous to the young men. I am told there are upwards of five hundred mids now unemployed. Those who have passed are not so much to be pitied, but the others are in a deplorable situation; they are too old to begin a new profession, are perhaps fond of the service, and train on for years with the hope of getting afloat. Should the Government adopt the suggestion of bringing up young men in a floating-college, there would be more room for those paid off, and many might also be employed in her till vacancies occurred; as this ship would not be kept in harbour, but sent where the Admiralty pleased, our young gentlemen would learn practical navigation and seamanship, and when qualified should be discharged into men-of-war as midshipmen. The captain should make a quarterly return to the Board, stating their qualities, attainments, &c. and unless the reports were favourable, no interest whatever should induce the Admiralty to promote them.

We all know full well that the First Lord of the Admiralty is much embarrassed with the promotions in the Navy, and with the best intentions, it is not in his power to do right; there are claims that the most independent First Lord must attend to, and even the Reform Bill will not emancipate him from this thraldom. Why then does he not emancipate himself? Nothing is more easy; has he not the example of the Army before him, and although there are, no doubt, many complaints in it, there is not a tenth part of the cause that there is in the Navy. A young man enters a regiment either by purchase or interest: if he remains in the same regiment, he is sure, sooner or later, to be promoted; if he has money, he purchases, if not, he

waits till death vacancies occur, or till he gets a step by interest. It is true, if without money, he sees others purchase over his head, but he has laid his account with that, and has no right to complain; the step is open to him if he can buy.

The Army have four roads to promotion—money, interest, merit, and seniority. The Navy has one good, namely interest, and two bad; if they follow the road of merit, which is very long and rough, they may arrive at promotion after losing a leg or an arm, and perhaps both, and otherwise greatly distinguishing themselves. In peace this road is closed. The road of seniority is still longer, and by the time they arrive at the end of that, they are fitter for their firesides than command.

It would be impossible so to arrange the Navy as to keep officers always together, unless the French system of battalions was adopted; but there is no difficulty whatever in dividing the promotion between men who have money and influence, and men who have long services. By a late regulation the promotion is confined to one vacancy in every three: this must push the First Lord so hard that it is quite impossible to attend to services, the greater part of the promotion must be bestowed on his personal friends, and the friends of influential men. An order in council enabling naval officers to sell, as is done in the army, would soon set all this to rights. If no midshipman could be promoted to the rank of lieutenant without purchase who had not served nine years, no lieutenant to the rank of commander who had not served five, and no commander to the rank of captain who had not served four, the young men of influence would at once be got rid of; they would not wait that time, their friends would purchase them on as they do in the army, and the one vacancy in three would be given to experienced officers. One half the appointments should be given to those who purchase, and the other half to those who do not: this arrangement would cost nothing, would do away the disgust that is felt at seeing boys get on so rapidly, would hold out encouragement to the old officer, which is highly necessary if we are to preserve a conquering navy, and would check the new system that is fast gaining ground in the service. If asked what is that new system, I reply, that it is a feeling of insubordination from the youngster upwards, a feeling of resistance to authority, a feeling that the old system of strict discipline and of respect due from the junior to the senior is nonsense, a feeling that seamanship is a trifle that can be easily learnt, a feeling that the old officer who was cradled in the tempest and nurtured in the storm, amidst the din of arms on the coasts of the enemy, is one of the old school, whose notions are altogether erroneous, and must give way to the system of a set of young gentlemen who may be able to sail their ships from one port to another in yacht style, but who, when put to the trial of hard service in war time will find themselves most woefully deficient. We beat the French and Spaniards last war, not because all our ships were in good discipline, but because all theirs were in bad; but the moment we had to do with the Americans we found we were not perfect. If with all the experience we then had we found ourselves deficient when brought in contact with a disciplined enemy, what are we to expect now we have no experience whatever, and when our system has become tenfold more vicious than it was? There is a growing marine on the other side of the Atlantic, which will in another war dispute with us the dominion of the seas; we may at first beat them by numbers, but unless we alter our system, they will be at us singly; all their officers are experienced men, the smallness of their navy admits of promotion by seniority without their being too old, and to match them we have a set of inexperienced boys; and the maritime nations of Europe will be as glad to assist them in reducing our power at sea as the continental nations were to overturn the military sway of France.

I speak plain, Mr. Editor, the state of the navy requires it, and the safety of the country demands it. There are many naval officers far more capable of handling this subject than myself, and many have handled it, but hitherto

without effect; things go on from year to year without being mended, and I fear, as long as the Board of Admiralty go in and out with the Ministry, it never will be better; the Board ought to be permanent, particularly when the new arrangements take place, it would then be independent of political intrigues; at present, what is uppermost in the minds of most First Lords of the Admiralty (and they have all the patronage) is to provide for their friends, and the feeling is very natural, their stay is uncertain, and they must be independent men indeed, and possess more love for their country than falls to the lot of men, if they forego the advantages, and set about a reform which probably will not be followed by their successor. Many, who have not studied the subject, are averse to see any great change introduced in the Navy, as it appeared to work well in war; but they do not reflect that the magnitude of the captain's list has changed the nature of the service altogether. In war the average number of years from captain to admiral was eighteen; even that was much too long, the youngest got tired of the detail necessary to keep their ships in order; what was a pleasure in their youth, became a pain in more advanced life, and as they approached their flags, it chiefly depended on the first-lieutenant whether ships were in order or not. Whether many of the first-lieutenants were bad, or were unsupported by their captains, I shall not pretend to decide; but it is an incontestable fact, that at the conclusion of the war many of our ships-of-the-line were in such bad order, and so infamously manned, as to render them unequal to contend with a disciplined enemy,—they would have beat a French or a Spanish ship, but I should have been very sorry to have seen them opposed to an American.

I remember a three-decked ship last war, whose lower-deck guns had not been run out for seven months; some guns had only two or three men while others had too many, and as for instructing them in gunnery or even exercising, I never saw it attempted; had that ship fallen in with a fifty-gunned frigate at night, she would inevitably have been taken: many of our frigates were also very bad, and the American war proved how little gunnery had been attended to. If such a state of discipline existed in many of our ships at the conclusion of the war, which, I believe, will not be denied, what state shall we be in at the beginning of hostilities? It is true we may at once promote 150 captains to the rank of admiral, and get rid of many old men, but we shall also get rid of many good officers who cannot be employed as admirals, and still we shall have captains of twenty-five years' standing commanding our line-of-battle ships, the greater part of whom will be near sixty years of age: few men at that time of life are fit for captains,—as admirals there is a greater scope for the mind, and they would, I have no doubt, command a fleet or a squadron very well, but, generally speaking, you cannot expect either dash or enterprise from men at that age, unless they have been previously habituated to command; their blood begins to run cold, and the nerves get unstrung. Lord Nelson fought the battle of the Nile at thirty-nine, Copenhagen at forty-two, and was killed at forty-seven; had he been sixty, or between that and seventy, and just hoisted his flag, you would never have heard of either the one or the other, and the battle of Trafalgar never would have been fought as it was. When a man's body begins to shake, the mind follows it, and he is always the last to find it out.

It must also be taken into consideration that many of the rising generation are brought up by men who, as I have stated, are too old, and have been captains too long to give that attention to their ships they ought to do; many are brought up also by peace officers, who don't know what the service was in war, and who instill into the youth their own ideas, which are altogether erroneous. In either case it cannot be expected you can raise good officers. By these observations I have not the least intention to give offence, I only state facts, and I hold it just as difficult to find a smart midshipman, who has served ten years over his time, or a smart lieutenant of twenty years' service, as a smart captain of twenty-five or thirty years'

standing; they are all tired of the rank they hold, and look to something higher. It is also quite impossible that young men, brought up as they now are and pushed on without experience, can be a good school for the rising generation. If the sale of commissions should be permitted, many of these evils would cease, for a certain number of experienced officers would be promoted and employed, and consequently a certain number of the youth who now enter the service would be brought up by them. I should also change the system of promotion from captain to admiral, and I think it might be done without doing injustice to any class of officers. I shall submit two plans, to neither of which do I see any material objection; both are certainly better than the present system, and would considerably accelerate promotion without doing injustice to any class or increasing the expense of the Navy.

I do not exactly know what has been the average number of admirals since the peace, at present there are one hundred and eighty: I shall take that number, and thirty superannuated, which I think is considerably within the mark. The expense is as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
55 Full Admirals, at 2*l.* 2*s.*	42,157	10	0
60 Vice-Admirals, at 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.*	34,492	10	0
65 Rear-Admirals, at 1*l.* 5*s.*	29,655	15	0
30 Superannuated, at 1*l.* 5*s.*	13,687	10	0
Total	£119,993	5	0

The changes I should propose would be—

50 Full Admirals, at 650*l.* a year	32,500	0	0
65 Vice-Admirals, at 550*l.*	35,750	0	0
85 Rear-Admirals, at 450*l.*	38,250	0	0
100 Superannuated Rear-Admirals, at 400*l.*	40,000	0	0
Total	£146,500	0	0

The additional expense in the admirals' list would be 26,506*l.* 15*s.* and the saving on the captains' list 16,246*l.* 5*s.* leaving an additional charge of only 10,261*l.* I would not touch the pay of the present flag officers, that would be unjust, because they have not profited by the acceleration this plan would give to promotion, but all future promotions should be regulated on the above scale. I do not foresee any objection to this—the Navy could have none, because, though they would receive less pay when made admirals, they would be promoted considerably sooner, which would balance the difference; there is at present too much inequality between the pay of the eldest captain and youngest admiral, this would equalise it. The Government ought not to object to it, unless they intend to reduce the expense of the active flag list altogether by diminishing the number of admirals. If that is contemplated, I beg to propose another plan which would effect it, and benefit the service, but I fear would cause a considerable degree of discontent. As I do not think it will be possible to reduce the list below one hundred and fifty, I shall take that as the groundwork of my plan, and shall establish the list as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
40 Admirals, at 2*l.* 2*s.*	30,660	0	0
50 Vice-Admirals, at 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.*	28,953	15	0
60 Rear-Admirals, at 1*l.* 5*s.*	27,575	0	0
100 Superannuated ditto, at 1*l.* 5*s.*	45,625	0	0
	£132,813	15	0

The removal of seventy captains to the superannuated admirals' list, whose pay is 12,775*l.* would bring the expense of the flag list to 120,038*l*

being upwards of 700*l.* less than the average since the peace, and considerably less than it now is.

To entitle an officer to be placed before his turn on the superannuated rear-admirals' list, he should have served afloat his established time, be within one hundred of the top of the captains' list, and be sixty years of age.

When the captains' list is bowed, as it now is, by an officer entitled to his active flag, and a vacancy takes place on the retired list, any officer having the above qualifications should be eligible to the retirement; but should a vacancy take place on the retired list when an officer *not* entitled to the active flag was at the head of the captains' list, that officer should have the vacancy. In the event of a vacancy taking place on the active list, the first captain eligible should fill it up, whether he was at the head of the captains' list or not,—this would accelerate promotion, and should the flag list be increased to two hundred, in the event of war, there would be a chance of having efficient admirals.

I throw out these hints at present, Mr. Editor, because an idea is afloat, and has gained considerable credit, that it is the intention of the present Government to establish a brevet in the Navy, or, in other words, to have a list of paid admirals and another of unpaid ones, which, I think, would be highly objectionable. The Army, it is true, is on that footing, and if we are to have as many paid admirals as there are paid generals, we should have no objection whatever to the regulation, but that is out of the question. The generals' list amounts to nearly five hundred, the admirals' is only one hundred and eighty. To pay these generals there are—

3	regiments of Life Guards.	1	Ceylon regiment.
7	regiments of Dragoon Guards.	1	Maltese regiment.
16	regiments of Dragoons.	26	Governors of Garrisons.
3	regiments of Foot Guards.	10	Lieutenant-Governors.
99	regiments of Foot.	120	who receive the same pay as a rear-admiral.
2	West India regiments.		
		288	

The remainder are paid agreeably to the rank they held when promoted; if on full-pay they receive full pay, if on half-pay they receive half-pay.

I have made the above statement to show how impossible it would be to assimilate the Navy to the Army. At present we have one hundred and eighty paid admirals—we have the General, Lieutenant-General, Major-General of Marines, Vice and Rear Admiral of England as sinecure. Why the sinecures of governors of garrisons are not given occasionally to the Navy, I shall not enquire; there may be weighty reasons of which I am ignorant. Independent of the appointments I have mentioned in the hands of the Horse-Guards to give to general officers, it must be recollected that there are a great many governments abroad which are rarely given to sea officers, and very often to generals. In the Navy, when an admiral hoists his flag he loses his half-pay; in the Army, when a general officer is put on the staff he retains his half-pay, either in the shape of a regiment or any other sinecure he may possess, thus receiving the unattached pay, equal to the rear-admiral's half-pay, and those who have either full or regimental half-pay retain that also. Should a brevet take place in the Navy, I see no other way of arranging it than by giving the admiral's half-pay to a certain number, and the captain's half-pay to the remainder; should they arrange it as is done in the Army, the captains in command of yachts and line-of-battle ships, when promoted, would receive as much, if not more, pay than the full admiral, which certainly would not be just; on the other hand, a brevet would take away from the old officers the chance of being employed either in yachts or line-of-battle ships, which is the only situation in which they can exist on their pay when serving afloat.

I am, Mr. Editor, your obedient, humble servant,

Purbrook Lodge, May 23, 1832. CHARLES NAPIER.

"An Old Soldier" to "J. M." upon Tactics.

Mr. Editor,—As "J. M." in his "Reply to the remarks of an Old Soldier," in the June Number of the United Service Journal, appears to have placed an erroneous construction on an expression of mine relative to the Greeks and Romans, and as I have, moreover, inadvertently and very unintentionally fallen into an error in reference to the conduct imputed by him to the British cavalry, as contrasted with that of those who fought at Villiers En Couché, and at Cateau Cambresis, I think it but right and fair that I should forthwith set those matters in the proper light.

If "J. M." will do me the justice to peruse again the page or pages which he seems disposed to *twit* me with for having dedicated to the Greeks and Romans, he will find that I have not only admitted the passage in question to be a *digression*, but have likewise offered an apology to the readers of the United Service Journal for that digression. I am, consequently, at a loss to know on what grounds "J. M." can consider any part therein contained as applicable to himself; and he may rest assured, that widely as I differ from him in all his opinions as to the inefficiency of the arms and tactics of our infantry, as well as of the system in general, and the incapability of infantry squares to resist cavalry, I have never lost sight of that courtesy which is due at all times from one member of an honourable profession to another.

The word "humbug," of which I have made use, it would seem has afforded "J. M." some little amusement, and I will therefore transcribe the passage wherein it is introduced, in order that the readers of the United Service Journal may see the real sense in which I have applied it, and judge accordingly; and I am inclined to believe that very many will agree with me on that point, although there are others who will, no doubt, be horror-struck at such heresy. The following is the passage to which I allude:—

"How long the notion will continue to hold its ground, as to the vast superiority of the soldiers of Greece and Rome over those of modern days, it is hard to say; for the delusion, the humbug, (I cannot but so term it) has been handed down from father to son, from generation to generation; and it will probably continue to be handed down to the end of the chapter."

I have already admitted having fallen into a mistake as to the *exact expression* made use of by "J. M." in reference to the want of chivalrous conduct on the part of our cavalry; but the following extracts from "J. M.'s" paper will enable the impartial reader to judge whether a want of such chivalrous conduct is or is not attributed to them. In page 290, in the March Number, is the following passage:—

"Let us now see, therefore, whether events or the strength of our present infantry bear out this opinion of modern tacticians, or whether it must rest solely on the weakness of cavalry, occasioned, perhaps, by the unchivalrous spirit of the age, constantly striving to conceal its augmenting cowardice under the pedantic affectation of achieving, by some mighty intellectual combination, what it dares not attempt by well-directed courage and energy."

In page 302, in the same Number, "J. M." says,—

"To perform such deeds, however, the horsemen must be cheered by hope and animated by example; but against prepared infantry they are now generally hopeless, and led in a hopeless spirit; and little, indeed, can be expected from the feeble heart of man, when its best support in danger, and strongest impulse to action, are both removed."

From the perusal of the above extracts I was induced to draw an inference, not perhaps intended by "J. M." as applicable to the want of a *something* in our cavalry at one particular place or period more than at another; but, in the *main*, I conceive myself not far wrong in concluding that the cavalry are censured by him for a lack of daring and energy, unless, indeed, the extracts given above have been misunderstood by me.

In the first page of his reply "J. M." reminds me, that "an anonymous

writer is but a shadow, depending solely on the value of the opinions he advances, and on the power of argument by which they are sustained." Granted.—But "J. M." must not forget that both he and the "Old Soldier" are anonymous writers, and are therefore so far on a par; and until the doctrine which has been advanced by the "Old Soldier" (every iota of which is founded on a repetition of stubborn and undeniable facts) shall have been disproved, he hopes to be acquitted of presumption, if he lays claim to as great a share of the substance as of the shadow.

In his conclusion I am assured by "J. M." that "my remarks have been answered in the same spirit of good fellowship of which I set an example in bringing them forward;" and although many of his remarks do not appear to breathe that spirit of good feeling which he professes, (such, for example, as—"My utter inability to face the real point at issue,"—"The practical soldier converted in his hour of need to the mere theoretical tactician,"—"The Old 'Soldier' not seeming to know what sort of system produced the result at *Cressy*," &c.—"The delight which the 'Old Soldier' has, is using capital letters"—and various passages in the same strain,) I cannot, nevertheless, for a moment doubt the sincerity of my opponent's assurance.

"J. M." declares that I do not back my system. I would ask, however, what argument can possibly avail against the following well-known facts, which so strongly uphold the opinions I have ventured to express as to the capability of infantry in square to resist cavalry, the efficiency of the arms and tactics of our infantry, and of the system in general, as well as that the fire of infantry is much more destructive than "J. M." gives it credit for?

From the year 1801 in Egypt, up to the termination of the war in 1815 at Waterloo, the British army was constantly opposed to the best and most experienced of all the continental troops; yet it not only came victoriously out of every general action, without exception, but in no single instance was a square of British infantry broken during the whole of that eventful period; neither, with the exception of the defeat of the French rear-guard by Gen. Bock's German dragoons on the morning after the battle of Salamanca, have we a single instance of a square of French infantry being broken by cavalry. Thus then, during a period of fifteen years' hard fighting, between two as brave armies as the world ever boasted, one solitary infantry square only was broken by cavalry; and be it remembered, that the French rear-guard at Garci-Hernandez, (already alluded to as having been broken by Gen. Bock's German dragoons,) had been abandoned to its fate by the French cavalry. This, together with the certainty that their discomfited army was making a rapid retreat, after having sustained so signal a defeat the previous day, must naturally have had a strong tendency to dishearten the troops of the rear-guard; who, it has been an hundred times asserted, could scarcely be induced by the spirit and good example shown them by the French officers to stand firmly and resolutely to meet the charge of the German cavalry. I maintain that this square fought under manifold disadvantages, and in so saying, no liberal-minded person will accuse me of wishing to detract from the merit of the brave German cavalry, whose noble conduct on that occasion has ever, and most justly, been the theme of admiration. I again repeat, that the ninety-five men and the number of horses belonging to Bock's Germans who were killed or disabled in a very few minutes, is a proof, and a strong one too, that the fire delivered from an infantry square is any thing but harmless; as I before contended in the May Number of the United Service Journal.

I contend further, that the examples which I quoted in the same Number, in support of my belief as to the capability of infantry squares to resist cavalry, are incontestable proofs that well-disciplined infantry, if properly formed, may confidently await the charge of cavalry, and that ninety-nine times out of an hundred they will repel their assailants. It is unnecessary to revert again to the nine hours of constant fighting at Waterloo between the Duke of Wellington's infantry squares and the numerous French cavalry, or to

the universally known fact, that no impression was made on a single square throughout the day. It is equally well known also that the slaughter amongst the French cuirassiers (the cavalry principally opposed to our squares) was beyond all comparison greater than that of any other portion of Napoleon's army. This brave cavalry, as admitted by the universal testimony of friends and enemies, was nearly destroyed in their repeated attempts on our squares.

I have already said, that "the system is quite perfect enough to satisfy me;" and my opponent has assured me it is "very possible; but a matter of no earthly consequence except to the gallant writer himself." It is, however, consolatory to me to know, that the system is also quite perfect enough to satisfy by far the greater majority of those who took part in the many hardly contested actions between 1801 and 1815, and whose observations and experience might be supposed to have enabled them to form opinions on such matters not altogether worthless. To the judgment of such men I am perfectly satisfied to appeal, as to the accuracy or the fallacy of my own views and opinions; and whether the few examples quoted by me in the May Number of the United Service Journal, in proof of the capability of squares to resist cavalry, and of the very much greater effect produced by a fire of musketry than "J. M." is disposed to admit, carry any weight with them or not. The very same system and tactics adopted by the British army, worked well also when applied to the raw Portuguese levies instructed by British officers. If, nevertheless, I am accused of undervaluing the merits of the brave men of the British army whose valour so mainly contributed to its many glorious victories, and of attributing to the *system* and to the *tactics* alone our successes, great injustice is done me. Yet, as the *system*, and our *tactics*, and the *gallantry of our army* combined, have always enabled us to beat our enemy, I am for letting well alone; and I would ever impress on the minds of the infantry, who are the mainstay, the bulwark, the rampart of our army, that they may rest confident of success in all attempts which cavalry may make on them, if they are but properly formed in squares, and evince that steadiness which their predecessors have done.

Those who are sceptical on the subject of the destructive nature of musketry fire, may, by perusing Colonel Napier's account of the battle of Albuera, be convinced that a handful of unconquerable British infantry stretched some thousands of Soult's veterans on the ground; for not a *man* of the French army fell by the sword or lance. Allowing therefore a due proportion of French to have fallen by our artillery, and by the Spaniards, it will be evident enough that the slaughter committed by our infantry on their enemy, and by the French infantry on our ranks, was immense; and that the musket and bayonet were here shown in their true light.

I now conclude, by assuring "J. M." that I entertain the same feeling of good fellowship towards him which, notwithstanding that our opinions on these matters are widely different, he professes for

AN OLD SOLDIER.

London, 14th June, 1832.

Bulow's Campaigns of Hohenlinden and Marengo.

MR. EDITOR,—A writer in the "Bulletin des Sciences Militaires" for November last, having pronounced an anathema against Bulow's "Campagnes de Hohenlinden et Marengo," published by me with Napoleon's notes in June 1831, I consider it necessary to contradict an assertion made therein in the following paragraph. "On confond cet écrivain (Bulow) en France et ailleurs (le Major Emmett tombe dans cette erreur) avec le Général Prussien du même nom, qui gagna la bataille de Dennewitz en 1813."

It is not my intention to enter into a discussion on the merits of Bulow nor on those of Napoleon;—nor in fact has the "Bulletin" afforded any

opportunity for it, having confined its notice merely to an anathema, and a party sketch of the character of Bulow. Suffice it to say, I consider the notes of Napoleon, when coupled with the text of Bulow, of considerable interest to those military persons who follow up their profession by study.

To those who may wish to enter farther into this subject, I recommend a perusal of an article "Bulow et Napoleon" in the "Bulletin" for January 1831, a paper worth attention, and showing Bulow yet to have able partisans; probably now for ever silenced by Napoleon himself.

The "Bulletin" for November having reached me but a few days ago, though a regular subscriber, I beg you would do me the favour of inserting this letter in your next Journal.

I have the honour to be, Sir, your most obedient servant,

Manchester, 21st June 1832. A. EMMETT, Royal Engineers.

*** Major Emmett's Translation, alluded to above, is one of various military works destined for review in this Journal, when we can find room.—ED.

Massey's Sounding Machine.

MR. EDITOR,—In the United Service Journal for April, "An Old Officer" has spoken in praise of my Patent Sounding Machine, and that by using it he preserved his frigate from grounding whilst blockading during the war in 1812; but he also states a defect in the machine, viz. that in sounding in upwards of sixty fathoms the rotator was compressed by the density of the water at so great a depth, and recommends that this objection to its use in deep water may be obviated, as it prevented him using it subsequently when the depth exceeded fifty fathoms. The very prompt answer which Capt. Basil Hall was pleased to make to the objection is extremely gratifyimg, but as both he and "An Old Officer" have rather mistaken the instrument in its present form, perhaps you will have no objection to insert the following account of it in your valuable Journal, so that seamen may feel confident that a complete remedy has been applied to the Sounding Machine and that there is no danger to be apprehended to the rotator in great depths of water.

The first remedy adopted was that mentioned by Capt. Hall, by perforating the rotator, so that whatever pressure there might be externally, there should be a corresponding pressure internally, that the cylindrical form of the rotator might be preserved: these perforations, however, lessened in some degree the buoyancy of the machine, and might affect the accuracy of the rotatory motion, and in lieu of them brass discs were introduced into the rotators, which have answered the purpose so effectually, that an accident of this nature is not known to have occcured since their introduction.

The original defect was pointed out in 1808, by the present Admirals Sir H. Hotham and Sir W. Bedford, the former of whom has since (in 1809) borne full testimony to its perfection and fitness for the purpose for which it was designed; and Mr. Thomas Stokes, Master of the fleet off Cadiz, in 1810, Mr. Alexander Limsdale of the Caledonia, and Mr. Tapper of the Clyde, in the same year, had all tried the Sounding Machine in its present improved state from 180 to 200 fathoms, without finding the rotators to suffer any injury from the compression. Since that time, they have been very much used by Capt. W. F. W. Owen in all parts of the world, at all depths under 200 fathoms, without injury to the rotators. All the before-named officers, as well as Capt. Basil Hall, have borne full testimony to these facts, so that "An Old Officer," and, indeed, every seaman, may be assured that Massey's Sounding Machine, as now constructed, may be perfectly depended on for accuracy in all depths as far as 200 fathoms, and that the instrument cannot be deranged, with common care, by continued and repeated service at that depth; but if by negligence or accident the rotator be indented or bent, it may in such case be liable to inaccuracies, and even to suffer compression at great depths, but in such case only.

Yours, &c. EDWARD MASSEY.

OCCURRENCES AT THE PRINCIPAL PORTS AND STATIONS.

PORTSMOUTH LETTER.

[We are taking steps—in the genuine spirit of our title page—to obtain for our numerous and rapidly increasing readers, some more direct and regular communications from our chief naval and military stations. Although, undoubtedly, the excellent local journals of Portsmouth and Plymouth do contrive to extract out of the new comers much of the cream of their information, and likewise to tell us much of what is going on, still, a more formal notice of such professional incidents at our hands may naturally be expected by the United Service.

We hope, therefore, ere long, to present our readers periodically with an express communication from the principal Ports and Garrisons. If we succeed in this at home, we believe we are not over sanguine in looking to volunteer assistance from the remotest points of this gigantic empire, with which our means of communication are necessarily more uncertain. But although—as conductors of this Journal—we may find it very difficult to communicate with persons who could advance the objects contemplated in this notice, and who may be stationed in Canada, Jamaica, Rio de Janeiro, the Cape, the Isle of France, Ceylon, and India; how easy must it not be, comparatively speaking, for officers at those stations to take up their pens, and in the true spirit of our joint-service, dash off a line to the Editor—not on "things in general"—not on the politics or gossip of the remote places to which their duty has called them, but fairly on the professional points of interest of which they on the spot must be far the best judges.

We earnestly entreat our remote friends, therefore, in the name of the united cause which it is our delight to honour and render efficient, not to neglect this appeal to their co-operation. If officers abroad derive pleasure or instruction from our pages, in which we embody everything of professional importance at home, including the general distribution and movements of both Fleet and Army, let them consider that at a very small cost of time and trouble, they can contribute to extend the utility and interest of this Journal, not only in England, but over all those other foreign stations, respecting which they may desire to gain as well as to impart information. Their interest in this matter is even more concerned than our own: for how is an officer perched on the top of Adam's Peak in the centre of Ceylon—or a seaman off the Cape of Good Hope out-watching the glorious cross—to come at the knowledge of what is going on even in their own neighbourhood—at Madras, for example, or St. Helena? They have, in truth, no means, unless through us; and our means fortunately are extensive, and we trust are destined to be still more so. Were Adam's Peak ten times less accessible than it is, or the Cape more stormy, still the United Service Journal would find its way there—fresh from the press, and faithful to its true purposes. And if the knowledge of what is passing, professionally, at all our different out-ports and military stations be only communicated to us, we shall find means to impart it to the wide circle of the United Service and our general Readers.—Ed.]

Portsmouth, 20th June 1832.

Mr. Editor,—In compliance with your wishes, I shall endeavour to give you every month a notice, brief or extensive, as the case may require, of what is going on at this Port. You must be aware, indeed, that in these peaceable times, Portsmouth is a very different place from what it is in the height of the war—and that Spithead cuts a very shabby appearance—with three colliers—two Indiamen—one convict ship—an American packet, and two or three yachts riding there, in comparison to the spectacle it used to exhibit when twenty or thirty sail-of-the-line and a dozen frigates crowded round the buoy of the Royal George, and emulated one another in the celerity of their movements, the magic of their discipline, the symmetry of their appearance, and withal in the matchless efficiency of their powers of

action at the moment of need. I live in hopes (I care not who knows it) of again witnessing such a sight, when that true mover of talents, a red-hot war, shall again call forward the energies of the nation, and turn the thoughts of its inhabitants from dreams and empty speculations to the real purposes and hard work of life. But let that pass, as I wish to intrude no politics upon you in this letter.

At the commencement of the month, and for a couple of weeks, we made a pretty good show at Spithead, as things go. The Donegal, 74, Capt. Dick, and the Talavera, 74, Capt. Brown, both in excellent kelter, formed the chief feature. The Briton came out of harbour on the 1st, but played her part for a very short time, as she went off to the west on the next day with a party of marines, I believe to add to the force off or in the Tagus. In the harbour, we had the old Victory bearing the flag of Admiral Sir Thomas Foley. The popularity of this ship, instead of decreasing, only increases with time, like the fame and exploits of her great commander. All the world goes to see her—and so constant is this round of company, that in order to prevent disappointment to visitors, or interruption to the ordinary duty of the ship, regular persons are appointed to show strangers round the decks. The two points of chief interest on board the Victory, are the spot where Lord Nelson fell, and that on which he breathed his last. The first is nearly in the centre of the quarter-deck (we always imagined it had been further forward, near the fore brace bits). Over the spot, has been fixed a round polished plate, with the words "England expects every man to do his duty," engraved upon it. We think it might have been better had the inscription been "Here Nelson received his death wound." The other spot which most engages the attention, is where the hero actually died. A huge oak-knee is shown, against which he leaned as he bled to death; and a couple of notches have been cut in the timber, with a sailor's knife, just where his head rested. This is in what was the midshipman's berth on the larboard side of the cockpit, and everything, as we understand, is now in the exact situation it occupied at that sad but glorious moment. We are told that the place is soon to be fitted up in superb style, and that a picture of Lord Nelson is to occupy one of the sides of the cabin. We trust it is not so, as the chief interest of the scene arises from the circumstances being all preserved, and it would be almost a burlesque to introduce a portrait into such a dark, though hallowed corner. The unpretending cuts on the edge of the timber, to point out the very spot where Nelson breathed his last, are probably all that any spectator of taste or feeling can require.

The Royal George Yacht is in the harbour. The beautiful little tender, the Pantaloon, has just sailed for Lisbon with despatches. There are several smaller sloops in the harbour, such as the Beacon and Mastiff, surveying vessels, and the Cracker. The Excellent experimental ship, is under repair, but will soon be ready again. Capt. Hastings, who commands her, and who is an officer of science and experience, will no doubt turn the means placed in his charge to great account. The purpose in view, as far as I have heard it described, is, to form some uniform system of exercise for the whole navy, in great guns especially. The Orestes, a fine eighteen-gun sloop, arrived the other day from Cork, and shortly afterwards proceeded into the harbour where she has been docked. She is commanded by Capt. Glascock, well known in the literary world as the author of the Naval Sketch Book; and the good order of his ship shows that while contributing to the literature of his profession, he has forgotten none of its more arduous duties.

The Tyne, 28, Capt. Charles Hope, arrived a few days ago from South America. Her period of three years, however, is not much above half expired. The object of her return is to have her bottom examined, as she unfortunately touched on a coral-reef while in the act of lending assistance to a vessel which had run aground. A telegraphic message ordered her off at once to Sheerness. We have seldom seen folks more disappointed on returning to England, than our friends of the Tyne, for they were actually under orders to sail round Cape Horn when the accident alluded to oc-

curred, and those who know the intense interest which belongs to distant explorations, will readily understand the nature and extent of the mortification which ensued.

The Donegal and Talavera sailed for the Downs on the 14th, when it was blowing a smart gale from the west. One of these ships got under weigh without a stitch of sail set except the jib to cast her head the right way, and stowed her anchor before making sail. The other sheeted home her topsails, and hoisted them according to the old-school method, before tripping the anchor. "We guess" she had a good heave of it; and think the better course, when the wind is fair and strong, and the way clear, is to keep all fast aloft till the anchor be up.

The following list of the ships which are building in the Dock Yard, will doubtless prove interesting.

SHIPS BUILDINGS.

Names of the Ships Building in Portsmouth Dock-yard, June 1832.	Length of the Gun Deck		Length of the Keel for Tonnage.		Extreme Breadth.		Moulded Breadth.		Depth of Hold.		Burthen in Tons.	No. of Guns.	Remarks.
	Ft.	In.	Ft.	In.	Ft.	In.	Ft.	In.	Ft.	In.			
Neptune	205	5¾	170	11	54	6	53	9	23	2	2690	120	Ready for launching.
Indus	188	6	155	0	50	5	49	8	22	6	2096	80	In a very forward state.
Hazard	100	6	86	9½	30	6	30	0	12	9	429 40/94	18	In frame, and nearly planked.
Electra	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	In floor ribband.
Buzzard, Lynx, and Termagant	90	0	73	7⅞	24	6	24	0	11	0	235 9/94	10	Completely planked and otherwise in a forward state.

Ships in Dock at Portsmouth.													
Pitt	176	0	145	1	47	6	46	10	21	0	1741 17/94	74	Nearly ready for going out of dock.
Sultan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Ditto.
Vindictive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	50	Ditto. The Vindictive has been cut down, which reduces her in weight 103 tons 15 cwt.
Java	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	50	Nearly complete.
Blond	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	50	Nearly complete.
Chameleon	155	1	125	4½	39	10	39	2	13	6½	1103	46	Getting new decks and other repairs.
Espoir	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	The same dimensions as the Termagant, they are in the bason & ready for commissioning.
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	

SHIPS IN THE HARBOUR.

Rate.	Guns.	Ships' names.	Remarks.
Sixth	26	Victory	Flag-ship for harbour service.
Sixth	..	Excellent	There is no order how she is to be fitted up at present.
Sloop	18	Orestes	Refitting.
Sloops	..	Beacon	Surveying Sloops.
	..	Mastiff	

I have left myself little room to say much of the military band, but if you wish me to write to you next month, I hope to be able to give you some information on that and several other points of interest. In the mean time I may mention that the 14th regiment of infantry are in garrison here, and are rapidly becoming a corps of good soldiers. You are aware, no doubt, that the skeleton of this regiment came home from India not long ago, and that, consequently, the greater number of the men fall more or less under the denomination of recruits. But it is truly astonishing to observe how rapidly the process of drilling, in all its stages, from the goose step and the dumb-bells, up to the field-day inspection, under the eye of the General, brings a corps which is well commanded, and well officered, and well manned, into smart and soldier-like order.

It may be useful to mention, that a steam-boat starts for Plymouth from hence every Tuesday and Friday, at half-past five in the evening, calling at Torquay, on her passage each way. She leaves Plymouth on her return every Monday and Thursday, at half-past twelve precisely. The steam-boat for Havre from Southampton calls off Portsmouth Harbour every Tuesday evening.

I am your faithful correspondent,

OMEGA.

Portsmouth, 20th June 1832.

DEVONPORT LETTER.

Devonport, 24th June 1832.

MY DEAR EDITOR,—In furtherance of your excellent plan for establishing a regular correspondence with the principal Ports and Garrisons, which cannot but prove interesting, especially to officers on foreign stations, you shall receive from this a monthly summary concerning the little that may be passing here.

You must of course know that Devonport is *not* what Plymouth Dock formerly was, but without stopping to uselessly deplore the fallen state of this once great emporium of all that appertains to glorious war, I proceed to consult my Journal.

On the 4th of the present month, the Briton, 46, Capt. Markland, arrived from Portsmouth, embarked sixty marines, and sailed the following day for Lisbon.

June 6th. Arrived the African, steamer, Lieut. Harvey, on her way to Falmouth, thence to the Mediterranean; she and the Meteor, Lieut. Symons, will be stationed to run between Malta and Corfu with the mails, so that henceforth the packets from England will proceed no further than Malta.

June 8th. Arrived the Champion, Commander Williams, from the West India and North American stations.

June 10th. The Conway, 28, Capt. H. Eden, with the Right Hon. the Earl of Mulgrave, lately appointed Governor of Jamaica, and suite, and Lord Seaforth, sailed for that island.

June 13th. The Champion went up harbour to be paid off and recommissioned.

There remain in Hamoaze the San Joseph, Nimrod, and Jupiter.

So *much* for the Naval movements at this port during the present month. But I must now sketch for you a very brilliant affair, in the way of a Fancy Dress Ball, given by the officers in garrison at Plymouth, on the anniversary of the battle of Waterloo. Upwards of three hundred tickets were issued, and it was the *tout ensemble* of all that our neighbourhood could pipe together of beauty and station.

Whiddon's Royal Hotel, the scene of this splendid fête, was decorated in a style of both taste and elegance. The entrance-hall was fitted up as an Italian tent, displaying on the white ground of the canopy and sides, the devices and arms fully emblazoned of the Papal, Tuscan, and Sardinian states: the sides were ornamented with splendid red, blue, and yellow draperies, and tent curtains. Within the tent curtain of the entrance, the Stewards and Ball Committee received the company as they arrived, and conducted them through an officer's guard of eighty men of the Royal Irish Fusileers, who lined the sides of the tent to the lower arch of the staircase of the ball-room, at the foot of which the band of the 89th regiment was stationed for the evening, on a raised platform, decorated in the same style. The vestibule at the head of the stairs, leading to the ball-room, which was tastefully fitted with arches and evergreens, was occupied by a light tent, formed of an Hanoverian ensign, and other colours, in which Drake's large portrait of his present Majesty was placed, surrounded by a wreath of laurels. The ball-room immediately adjoining, was splendid in the extreme, forming one immense military marquee: the canopy was suspended from the hook of the central chandelier, upwards of thirty feet high, with ropes of red, white, and blue, which admirably contrasted with the sixteen British and Foreign standards, of which the canopy was composed. The sides of the canopy fell in ample draperies, trimmed with the same cordage. The orchestra, also tastefully festooned with flags, presented at its front a transparency of his Grace the Duke of Wellington in military costume, mounted on a noble charger, painted by Capt. Moore, of the 89th regiment. The garden, which is of considerable extent, was covered with an awning formed of flags, well lighted with variegated lamps, which were suspended from the trees and shrubs; the paths being laid over with scarlet cloth, and couches conveniently arranged. At the head of the garden was an arbour, surmounted by a crown of variegated lamps, and forming a delightful and cool retreat, the pleasure of which was still augmented by the martial strains of the band of the Royal Marines, which, though absent from the eye, was most gratefully present to the ear. The dresses and decorations of the assembled host partook of all that variety with which it is customary to adorn these persons of ours, both among the savage and the civilized; from the display of eastern magnificence to the simple garb of the natives of Otaheite; but to describe would be endless, and to discriminate might appear invidious, suffice it that all appeared of one mind and spirit—to celebrate the proud occasion, and dispense and receive enjoyment, an effort that was crowned with the most perfect success.

Capt. Sir James Gordon, our late resident Commissioner under the Victualling Board, left this on Monday last, by the Brunswick steamer, for his new appointment at Chatham; and has carried with him the kind wishes of all classes here. The whole of the men employed at the Victualling Office assembled on the passing of the vessel, and gave him three hearty cheers.

My dear Editor, ever thine,

PROGRESS OF PERFECTION AND PROSPECTS OF PEACE.

The doctrine of perfectibility has never gained much on the credulity of the English people. To procure it a favourable reception, there would seem to be necessity for a more sanguine temperament and more romantic fancy than belong to our practical and matter-of-fact countrymen. It appears also to stand in too close connexion with the dogmas of infidelity, to receive general approbation in a country where the light of reason, though applied to elucidate, is by no means considered to eclipse or overpower the discoveries of revelation. For our own part, we lay claim to so much penetration, as would have enabled us, even without actual knowledge of its native soil, to pronounce the scheme of perfectibility, with regard to Great Britain, an exotic. Even though we had not been previously told that it came into being about the same time with many other wild speculations that distinguished the period of the first French revolution, we have vanity enough to believe that we could, from internal evidence alone, have affixed its origin to the imaginative powers of our theoretical neighbours. It was Turgot who first broached the idea of perfectibility, but Condorcet was at the pains of reducing his own views on the subject to a regular system. He was of opinion that Nature had fixed no limits to our progress towards the attainment of three grand objects —equality between different nations, equality between people of the same nation, and the intrinsic improvement of individuals. It is remarkable that a very few years elapsed from the announcement of his theory, till the interval between the two extremes of society in France became wider than at any former period, and the country itself attained an elevation, which left most other nations of Europe in the distance far below it. The despotism of Napoleon rapidly swept away all traces of republican equality, while his insatiable ambition proved no less fatal to the independence of other States, which were forced to acknowledge French supremacy, and sink beneath the flight of the Imperial eagle.

But though few Englishmen avow themselves believers in the doctrines of Condorcet, there is among us, nevertheless, a party, whose anticipations with regard to the future state of society, though not carried to the same extent of error, possess a good deal of the delusive tendency of the views of the French philosopher. We allude, of course, to those who are ever holding forth ignorance as the principal, if not, indeed, the only cause of the evils, as far as they proceed from human agency, which disturb the peace and happiness of society, and who think that the diffusion of knowledge will, in time, effect a complete regeneration in the human character, and give a permanent aspect of harmony and concord to the mutual intercourse of mankind. The maintainers of these opinions in these kingdoms, differ from the disciples of the French school only in degree. A fundamental error, common to both, is, the omission in their reasonings of the principle, that the education, which improves the intellectual powers, and even becomes the medium of conveying useful information, is of itself totally powerless with respect to the production of any radical change in the moral character. After mental cultivation has been success-

fully extended on every side and among all classes of a population, the seeds of crime and violence may remain in rich and rank luxuriance, ready, whenever opportunity offers, to spring up into fruits prejudicial to the interests of the community; nay, it is even possible that the acquisitions of knowledge may only serve to furnish ambition, and malice, and fraud, with additional means of success.

We do not, however, mean to deny that the progress of education will always contribute in an eminent degree to the tranquillity and prosperity of a country, where the government is sufficiently strong to vindicate the majesty of the law. But the reason is, not that a propensity to injustice, or a disposition to make others the dupes of one's knavery, or the tools of his ambition, or perhaps the victims of his revenge, will not probably exist in a mind which has been the subject of literary culture; but because a person trained to habits of reflection, and possessed of a moderate share of information, quickly perceives that, in a community under the control of an established and efficient government, an infringement of the law can only redound to his own loss or ruin. A regard to self-interest becomes, in such circumstances, a powerful motive in innumerable ways, for obedience to legal authority, and for adherence to the regulations of a civilized and well-ordered society. But suppose the selfish principle to operate on the other side, together with the prospect of impunity, let opportunities be presented of self-aggrandizement or self-gratification, and this necessarily at the expense of the dearest interests of others, even their lives and properties—does any one at all acquainted with human nature imagine, that scenes of blood and plunder would not be matter of daily exhibition in a country so circumstanced, however widely intellectual acquisitions might be diffused? These, in truth, cannot counteract the effect of those evil passions which really are the source of all the great calamities men inflict on each other, in any other way than by bringing opposite principles of action to bear against them. Now, no one will say that advancement in knowledge has any necessary connexion with progress in virtue and morality. Every day's experience unfortunately proves how possible it is for the understanding to be highly cultivated, while the heart is barren of every virtuous feeling. A merely literary education has no tendency to introduce into the human breast those new and purer motives of conduct, which may be the fruits of religious instruction, and can, therefore, no otherwise act for the benefit of society than by giving a favourable direction to the principle of self-interest. But when an individual has been instructed to perceive, and taught to reflect, that his schemes of ambition or villainy would not only be unsuccessful, but probably terminate in his own destruction, prudential considerations alone may induce him to adopt a line of conduct not less advantageous to the community than to himself, at the very time that he continues devoid of all virtuous principle, and prepared for the violation of all law, human or divine, the first moment that permits him to accomplish his purposes with impunity.

With such persevering industry has it been of late years attempted to keep public expectation directed to the halcyon days yet to come, and to be ushered in by the triumph of the schoolmaster's labours, that we think it right, even at the risk of bringing into our pages

matter which to some readers may appear uninteresting, to use our humble endeavours to dissipate delusions, which might be attended with consequences fatal to our country's best interests. We know how powerfully the minds of men, towards the conclusion of the tenth century, were influenced by the representations of the new order of things, with which the following century was to commence. We know how many thousands became the dupes of their own credulity—how they sacrificed present and solid advantages to the imaginary ones, which they fondly hoped to realise under the expected reign of the Messiah in Palestine. We should not be greatly surprised, therefore, paying as we do some regard to the lessons of history, if the indulgence of delusive hopes, with respect to a state of human affairs said to be rapidly approaching, were productive, even in our own day, of results somewhat similar. It is to guard the British public against suffering themselves to be misled into groundless expectations, which might have a fatal influence on their conduct in reference to the most important national concerns, that we have entered on the discussion of a subject, that not only possesses a professional interest for ourselves, but involves matter of serious consideration to the whole people.

Wars are at once a consequence and a proof of the wickedness of mankind, and though they will never leave our world as long as vice remains, yet along with it, whenever it goes, they will certainly take their departure. It is then most important to attend to the distinction between the diffusion of knowledge and the extension of virtue. We might otherwise be led to expect, from the rapidity with which all civilized nations are now supposed to be advancing in a course of intellectual improvement, the fulfilment of hopes, which will most certainly never be realized till mankind shall have improved *pari passu* in religion, morality, and the social duties: and such expectations might be made reasons with us for neglecting those precautionary means, which, however necessary to diminish the danger of exposure to the greatest of human calamities—a hostile invasion of our country—as long as reasonable apprehensions of war can exist, might justly be considered superfluous, if all ground for those apprehensions were once completely removed by the practical perfection of the human race.

We would not hesitate to admit, that the wide dissemination of religious truth, if it met with a favourable reception in our day, might be rightly held to give the most flattering promise of an early enjoyment of all the fruits of peace and concord in all our world. But a knowledge of the precepts and doctrines of the Christian religion was not, we are sure, that which Condorcet looked upon as fitted to produce such happy results in the future state of mankind; nor is it, we believe, on the progress of religious education that some among the people of England found their hopes of the coming age of terrestrial happiness. It is the accumulation and extension of secular knowledge, the spread of information on subjects of science or art or general literature, which, it is expected, will do so much for the regeneration of the human character. That the treasures of philosophy and literature will receive continual accessions, and that every day will increase the numbers of those who share in the possession of them, no rational mind can doubt; but with equal certainty may it be pronounced, that

the progress of reason and knowledge is a very different thing from the increase of virtuous principle and true morality. It is true, as we have already stated, we believe the natural tendency of an extension of intellectual cultivation to be, the promotion of peace and order, and the diffusion of other social advantages in a community which is under the regulation of a wise and vigorous government, but we have been also careful to trace this happy result to its true source, the favourable direction given to the powerful principle of self-interest. It is most necessary, in the present question, to keep in view the distinction between that external observance of social obligations which arises from selfish motives, and that sincere discharge of moral duties between man and man which springs from a conviction of the truths of religion. In the latter case, the continuance of conduct whereby the interests of society are advanced, is secured by a pledge which in the other case does not exist. Religious truth cannot make a permanent impression on the mind without introducing principles of action, which produce their salutary effect *under every change of circumstances.* It is very different, however, with regard to that truth which only enlarges the intellect, but never reaches the heart. The progress of merely secular knowledge will undoubtedly be highly beneficial to a people, as long as self-interest is enlisted on the side of the law—in other words, as long as a judicious government retains strength and efficiency. But let it once appear that the supreme power is too weak to support its authority and enforce obedience to the laws—let turbulence, or violence, be released from the fear of punishment or encouraged by hopes of success, and it will soon be seen how little security there is for the permanence of that subordination and tranquillity, so essential to the well-being of a community, in the mere possession of high intellectual acquirements.

For the last half-century no country has been more distinguished than France for names eminent in science, and art, and literature; and no people can boast of a more intimate or more general acquaintance with such subjects than the French in the present time. The Parisians in particular have availed themselves of their opportunities to acquire a liberal education to a greater extent perhaps than the inhabitants of any other capital in the world. What then have been the fruits among them of intellectual cultivation? We will not go back to the sanguinary scenes which *the reign of terror* made so familiar to the eyes of Frenchmen; to that accumulation of guilt and crime, to which no equal period in the history of any other nation can furnish a parallel. It has indeed been said that the atrocities of those days were the natural result of the previous ignorance in which France had been so long buried; that it is not to be wondered at if, in their first admission to the enjoyment of intellectual light, men were for a while dazzled, and deprived of the power of discrimination. But surely the people of England did not possess a greater degree of education in the time of Cromwell than the people of France forty years ago; and yet when they had attained the power of acting with equal licence, they were not hurried into similar displays of deliberate revenge and cold-blooded cruelty. Are we not then justified in imputing, in some measure at least, to the circulation of the dogmas of a sceptical philosophy—of the writings of a Voltaire or Rousseau, the

production of feelings, which appeared to experience a horrid delight in dissevering all the ties which previously bound society together? But waving all discussion of occurrences of an earlier date, let us look to the state of France since Louis Philippe ascended the throne, for the practical fruits of her large participation in intellectual acquisitions. Do we find in the conduct of the French people, during this period, any clear proofs of improvement in the national character? Have they advanced to a higher degree of purity in morals? Have they shown a greater attachment to the pursuits of peaceful and honest industry? Have they divested themselves of their inordinate passion for a false and spurious glory; that is, have they ceased to make the aggrandisement of themselves and their nation the sole scope and object of all their actions, and to consider that the triumph of the French name atones for all the violations of justice and morality by which it may have been accomplished, all the waste of human life, and all the amount of human suffering, with which it may have been attended?

We are not to be told that the insurrections and rebellions by which peace and order, and industry, have been made strangers to France for the greater part of Louis Philippe's reign, are merely the ebullitions of the spirit of liberty, the struggles of men ready to lay down their lives in vindication of their just rights. Where was this ardour in the glorious cause of freedom, while France submitted to the iron sway of Napoleon? It may perhaps be said, that there could have been little hopes of success in an attack on a throne occupied by a man of such transcendent powers, and whose vigilance never slept. This, though we should admit its truth, is not a sufficient answer to our question. The mighty tyrant, who left the people of France just so much liberty as suited his purposes, who used them all as the tools and sacrificed the bravest of them as the victims of his ambition, reigned not only in safety but with popularity. He was, in fact, the idol of his own slaves, and to this day is his memory regarded by them with reverence. Had the Duke of Reichstadt been brought up in France, and displayed any symptoms of hereditary talent, there is little doubt but that he would by this time have been seated on the throne through the exertions of his father's admirers. And yet these are the men who would have it believed that the revolutionary attempts, in which they are prepared to carry their object by dint of the sword, and achieve their way to success over heaps of their slaughtered countrymen, are all the genuine offspring of their love of liberty.

Napoleon himself had a thorough insight into the character of the nation he governed, and he gave us the true key to his internal policy, when he told us "he played upon the imagination of the French people." He led them on to victory and to conquest; he put France at the head of Europe, and raised her to a dazzling elevation, which blinded the judgment, while it flattered the vanity of her sons. No matter how heavily the weight of a stern despotism pressed her down at home, as long as her name was exalted among the nations;—she was contented in her slavery: she thought military glory cheaply purchased by the surrender of her liberty, and at an enormous expenditure of blood and treasure.

Napoleon appears to have been little tinctured with the notions of

Turgot or Condorcet, as to the consequences of the dissemination of knowledge. He certainly would not have become the patron of the sciences and arts, or laboured for their propagation, had he contemplated as the result, that change in the human character which the advocates of perfectibility anticipated. Recent experience demonstrates to us how wisely Napoleon judged. The students of those schools which received so much of his countenance and approbation, after all their familiarity with the discoveries of reason, have as yet failed to acquire those qualifications whereby a man is fitted to discharge the tranquil duties of social life. They show the same aversion with their less educated countrymen to the occupations of the peaceful and industrious citizen: they seem capable of deriving enjoyment or amusement only from the sanguinary game of war, and as though they longed for another Napoleon to marshal them for the battle.

The conduct of the students of the Polytechnic schools on the occasion of the recent disturbances, which began at the funeral of Gen. Lamarque, is, perhaps, as strong an instance as could be given of the insufficiency of a merely intellectual education to make a radical change in the human character. It proves the utter futility of the expectation of *the reign of peace and social felicity*, which is to succeed the triumph of knowledge. We see plainly that even if the entire population of France had been on a par with the students in point of mental cultivation, society in that country might have been as far from the state of perfection contemplated by Condorcet, as it is at present. Indeed, on such an hypothesis the probability is, that her passion for aggrandisement would not only have remained, but have actuated her conduct the more powerfully; that the consciousness of increased ability would have given her additional confidence. She might then have become a more formidable neighbour than ever, and have attempted once more to elevate her fame on the prostration of the liberties of independent states.

We trust nothing we have said will be miscontrued into an intention on our part to depreciate the utility and importance of general education. In proportion as knowledge, even though merely secular, is diffused more widely in a country, where the executive can enforce the provisions of a wise legislature, the most powerful and universal motive to conduct, that of self-interest, lends more and more of its influence in support of the cause of peace and social improvement. But where the power of the law is so feeble that the violators of it have more to hope for from the success than to fear from the defeat of their schemes of fraud, villainy, or perchance ambition, this very same principle of action operates on the side of injustice and violence, even supposing the delinquents not deficient in intellectual attainments. Religious instruction, indeed, inasmuch as it supplies other motives to a course of conduct beneficial to society, besides that of a regard merely to the present consequences of actions, has a tendency to promote the interests both of communities and individuals in every variety of circumstances. If we want an instance of the great national benefits arising from the diffusion of religious knowledge, we need not look farther than Scotland. How rapidly, as well as uniformly, has that country proceeded in the acquisition of all the blessings placed within the reach of a well-ordered and civilized community! What a contrast

between the present state of Scotland and France! The difference we attribute partly to the greater stability of our government, which made even the simple cultivation of the intellectual powers productive of happier fruits in Great Britain than among our neighbours, but principally to the diversity of the two species of knowledge which have been respectively propagated to the greatest extent in the two countries.

Had it been sufficiently considered in what way the diffusion among a people of an education, not essentially religious, strengthens the barrier which stems the tide of human passion—that it opposes a greater obstacle to what would otherwise sweep away, with the force of a torrent, all the bulwarks of society, only by making the principle of self-interest co-operate with the law of the land,—to whatever height it might have been supposed a means of raising a nation in respect to internal improvement, it could never have been contemplated as the result of even the universal spread of such education, that the several different kingdoms of the world would be permanently united in the interchange of mutual good offices, as the component members, which in truth they are, of one great family. For, let it be remembered, that those selfish motives which induce unprincipled individuals, in whom the understanding has been cultivated and habits of reflection formed, to pay obedience to the laws of their own community, do not *in the same way* co-operate with the law of nations to procure for it the respect of governments, who also too frequently exhibit a want of honourable principle. The criminal who infringes the laws of his country, exposes himself to the early infliction of a sufficient penalty; but there exists on earth no supreme and universally recognised authority to inquire into acts of national injustice, and visit them with condign punishment. This is a case, indeed, not beyond the reach of the sanctions of the divine law, but, as we are speaking of the progress of mere intellectual truth, we must exclude from our present view the influence of religion on the conduct. On such a supposition, therefore, international policy must ever continue to be regulated by those same *reasons of state* which have hitherto exercised a paramount influence over all governments, alike civilized or barbarian, republican or monarchical. The able statesman will in all future, as he has done in all past time, make it his leading object to advance, by every possible means, the public interests, or to speak more correctly, the interests of the particular people entrusted to his guidance; and the minister who shall have followed a successful course of foreign policy, will not, at the period of the highest national intelligence, incur any greater risk than at present, of a rigorous inquiry, by his own countrymen at least, into the strict justice and propriety of his measures. Other states, indeed, may conceive they have grounds for charging him no less with a dereliction of all honourable principle, than with heavy loss and injury inflicted on themselves; but no other remedy will be put within their reach than that which is even now available. The only check on the conduct of an ambitious government, will be that which arises from the sanctions of the *lex talionis*; nor will the widest diffusion of the acquisitions of mere secular knowledge contribute to the produce of any other. The people best prepared for resorting to force as a means of self-defence on necessary occasions, will still be the least exposed to suffer from the violations of national justice, or the breaches of national faith on the part of other powers.

POSITION AND DUTIES OF THE UNITED SERVICE.

Ἀφρήτωρ, ἀθέμιστος, ἀνίστιός ἐστιν ἑκεῖνος,
ὅς πολέμου ἔραται ἐπιδημίου ὀκρυόεντος.—Iliad, ix. ver. 63.

"Without hearth, laws, or family, is the man who delights in civil war, and in the mighty evils that follow in its train."

A GREAT change has come over the country of our fathers. But, whether this great change is to be for good or for evil—whether the mighty tide of democracy, let in upon the land, is destined to sweep away our best and most hallowed institutions, and to destroy the very springs of our greatness; whether it is to settle on the moral surface, chill the rich qualities of the soil, and reduce it to one vast and stagnant marsh, fit only to rear "things vile and gross in nature;" or whether, in accordance with the hopes of its advocates, that must now be backed by the prayers and the wishes of the whole nation, it shall flow into the channels that honest, wise, and virtuous patriotism will not fail to trace out for its course, and thus tend to refresh and fertilize the wastes of the estate politic, are questions on which time alone can decide, and on which we have now no intention to speculate, as our sole object, at present, is to remind the United Services, that, great as these changes are, they change in nothing whatever the situation of the army and navy. We still owe the same duty and devotion to our sovereign, we are still governed by the same laws, the objects for which we were embodied remain the same, and our conduct must still, as heretofore, be guided by the same principles of honour, loyalty, and patriotism, attaching to these much-abused words the fullest and highest meaning of which they are capable.

We have always maintained, in this Journal, that the qualities here enumerated should invariably constitute the basis of military character, as well as the guide of military conduct; and we have, in so doing, responded only to the feelings of the profession at large: but where reflection is required, there are, as in all other situations, idlers to be found also in our ranks; men who, on the score of good intentions, too often allow chance to assume the reins of their actions; and such men we would now most particularly warn. We must free ourselves from this empire of chance, have no modification or gradation of conduct, no tampering with the duty due to the name and character of the profession; no exertion must be wanting to meet the highest claims it can make upon us; not only the head, but the heart must be cultivated, and every word, as well as every action, must be able to stand the test of the strictest scrutiny: vigilant enemies are at the gates, and we must be prepared at all points.

But who, it may be asked, are those enemies? We have, in truth, so much estranged ourselves professionally from party politics, that we hardly know how to denominate them; but our readers will understand us when we say, that we mean the set or faction, for a party they are not, whose public writers and orators pretend more particularly to utter the sentiments of those whom they are pleased, most improperly, to term the people of England. These self-elected organs of a very small, though sufficiently noisy part of the community, have lately taken great pains to convince the soldiers that the people of England are their friends, a

fact of which, we trust, no part of the army can well entertain a doubt; it is what we have ourselves often asserted, and we cannot do better than here repeat what we before stated on the subject.

"The radical and levelling press, whose ignorance will make future generations blush for their ancestors, has by violence, falsehood, and misrepresentations, overturned two thrones within as many months *, and has shaken to their very foundation the oldest and best established institutions of our own country. This gigantic force has, for years, directed its fiercest attacks against the British army, but has not yet been able to destroy, or even weaken its popularity: the failure may seem strange to some, but the cause is as simple as it is honourable. Notwithstanding the miserable and mawkish cant that has been disseminated in our days, there is yet an honest manliness of feeling about the people of Britain, that makes them delight even in the contemplation of deeds of hardihood and danger, and makes them proud of the unrivalled achievements of their sons, brothers, and countrymen, as well as of the country that produced, and of the institutions that fostered such men, because it enables the most peaceful citizen to say with inward satisfaction—Even such would have been my conduct had chance placed me in the ranks of war instead of casting my lot in a happier and more peaceful sphere." And we might have added, that the British people of whom we spoke, for we comprehend under that title all those of the king's subjects, of whatever rank or party, whose frank, manly, and unsophisticated feelings make them British by right of heart, as well as by right of birth—that all those, we say, are as justly proud of the conduct pursued by the army in peace as in war. In Sicily, as well as in entire provinces of what are now called liberal and liberated countries, where British troops were stationed after the peace, the inhabitants declare to this day, that the happiest and most secure time they ever knew was the time of the British occupation. In the wildest and most remote parts of Ireland the military uniform, independent of arms, is the best and safest passport; and when, at a moment of great excitement, the radical press lately accused the officers and soldiers of the army of thirsting to shed the blood of their countrymen, the entire nation indignantly repelled, as with one voice, so foul and black a slander. It was this very unanimity, that showed at once the necessity for a different mode of attack, to which the army are indebted for the friendship so suddenly thrust upon them, by the faction that set themselves up as the representatives of the people of England *par excellence*.

And now, let us ask, how has this great friendship for the soldiery been shown in results? Have these pretended friends ever voted any addition to the soldier's pay? Have they proposed any measure for augmenting the comforts, and alleviating the heavy duties that naturally fall to the share of their military friends and *protegés*? Have any steps been taken, at their recommendation, to cheer the declining years of the war-worn veteran, to provide for his widow or his orphans?—If not, what are the mighty honours and rewards so lavishly showered upon the soldiers by these generous benefactors and patrons? As it might puzzle the gentlemen of the radical press to answer these questions in a

* Fragments, &c., written soon after the Belgian revolution.

satisfactory manner, we shall ourselves briefly reply to them, in order that the army may be sensible of the favour for which they are indebted to their new friends.

The soldiers and the army at large have to thank the sect, or party, of which we are now speaking, for having, during forty years, used every exertion to traduce the military character, to degrade the individuals of the profession, to abridge their comforts, and to thwart their hopes of honourable rewards for long and meritorious services. This party has never ceased to urge upon the government whatever measures they could devise, to check the honest aspiration of the soldier, to break his spirit by disappointed hope, and his health by the over-exertions, which the few were forced to make, in order to perform the duty of the many. Even the miserable pension which, in the hour of need, the country promised to the veteran, as the reward of his exertion, has been taken from him, at the instigation of these valued patrons, who, instead of endeavouring to raise the army in their own estimation, in order to create the kind of self-esteem which is the surest basis for that mental elevation on which, in scenes of war, we can alone calculate with safety, did every thing to humble and degrade them. But having now spoken against corporal punishment, which affords a fine theme for party declamation, they presume to call themselves the friends of the army, without ever having conferred a single benefit on a deserving soldier, on the mere strength of having, to a certain extent, taken the *criminals* of the profession under their special protection. Can we ever be sufficiently grateful for favours so distinguished? It is true, that the writers and orators, of whom we are speaking, invariably attempt to make distinction between the officers and soldiers, though, in fact, their interests can never be separated. It is not merely duty and feeling, but interest itself that makes it imperative upon officers to attend to the happiness, comfort, and well-being of their subordinates; for it is only, when aided by the professional skill, willingness, and attachment of the men to their colours and commanders, that officers can expect to reap honour and distinction; as it is only through the recommendation of the officers, on the other hand, that the men can attain any of the advantages and benefits the profession holds out to good conduct and exertion. That there are some who preach a different doctrine we have seen; but the soldiers of the army know as well as the rest of the world, that those who are most ready to promote treason are always the first to punish the traitor, not merely by branding such offenders with the disgrace and infamy which has, from time immemorial, been their certain heritage, but by consigning them, at the earliest opportunity, to the unwept, unpitied, and ignominious doom which is their equally certain due.

In reference to the conduct, so constantly pursued by the radical party towards the army, we here beg to call attention to a circumstance lately boasted of in their own papers, and never, we believe, decidedly contradicted. It would appear, from their own showing, that some men of a cavalry regiment stationed at Birmingham, lately found their way into the room or hall, in which the Political Union of that town hold their meetings. These soldiers, who, if they went at all, certainly went to the place out of mere idleness, just as they would have gone to see Punch, or any other more amusing exhibition, no sooner made

their appearance, than the president, a gentleman of great wealth and influence, is said to have immediately gone up to and shaken hands with them, and welcomed them to the assembly. Now, as it is not customary for presidents to shake hands with all the strangers or idlers that chance to join such public meetings, and as Mr. Attwood would certainly not have shaken hands with these soldiers, or other individuals in their rank of life, though better men perhaps than himself, had he met them in any other situation—his doing so, at a meeting of this notorious Union, could only be with an unlawful view of flattering these thoughtless men, and in the hopes of making political partisans of those who are alike prohibited by the laws of the land and of the army from interfering in politics. And a wise prohibition it is, for when soldiers take to settling political affairs, they take such settlement entirely into their own hands; and simple, indeed, must be the man who can think, that an army, least of all the high and high-minded army of Britain, would deign to act under the control of a set of miserable Political Unions. The idea also that the army, if once detached from its duty and allegiance, would be found, numerically, too weak to stand by itself against the rest of the population, is another proof of the deplorable ignorance of the mob-orators of the day; for armies that not only execute, but also enact the law, never want recruits.

We confess, that though we place the firmest reliance on the character and conduct of the British soldiers and sailors, and know that, as a body their heads are clear, and their hearts sound, we do not like to see them attending these foolish, and too often, from the nature of the harangues uttered, criminal meetings,—simply, because men entering the army at the early period of life, when soldiers mostly enlist, cannot have acquired the mass of knowledge necessary for enabling them to form just estimates of the best modes of governing a great nation, whose foreign and domestic affairs are, from the very nature of its power and extent, more complicated than those of any empire that ever existed. Considering the glaring ignorance every day displayed by the gentlemen of the radical party, what can be expected from private soldiers, whose means of obtaining political knowledge must have been so much inferior. In the army, the men seldom study, even when the opportunities are within their reach; so that few, if any, can possess the very extensive and multifarious information, without which it is not possible, even with the clearness of perception that almost invariably distinguishes both soldiers and sailors, to detect the slander, falsehood, and sophistry so often indulged in, to the regret of all upright reformers, by a great proportion of the popular writers and orators of the day. Soldiers, like other men, may be deceived by such misrepresentations, but unfortunately they cannot be so deceived without endangering the peace of society; for it is only whilst they remain true to their duty, that others may for a time be deceived with impunity. Nor is it true, as too often asserted, that any man can judge of the actions of government that particularly affect himself. In civilized life, a man must be governed with reference to his situation as a member of the entire community; but to understand that situation exactly, it is necessary he should first understand the exact situation of the community of which he forms an integral part; and this requires a far more extensive knowledge of history,

geography, statistics, and political economy, than usually falls to the soldier's share. True it is, that speeches are made, and leading paragraphs written every day, in the most profound ignorance of all these things; but then wise men laugh at the writers and speakers, only using their best endeavours to counteract and arrest the evil effects produced by bad writing and mischievous oratory.

The punishment inflicted on one Somerville, a four-months' recruit of the Greys, having lately occasioned some discussion, we think it right to make a few remarks on the case, taking our information in this instance also from the radical prints. This man, it appears, first wrote a letter to the Editor of the Weekly Dispatch, aspersing, in no very measured terms, the character of his distinguished regiment. For this offence he was not punished, from what cause, or with what propriety, it is unnecessary to discuss at present. The case is undergoing professional inquiry, and we shall recur to it in due season. But though this offence might not have been punishable by military law, it was nevertheless one that, in all other situations, would have been punished to the full extent of the power possessed by those against whom it had been committed. Suppose that, in civil life, a man were, at his own request and under an implied promise of good conduct, to be received into a family, (as a regiment should be considered,) or into any other club, circle, or society, and should then, on so short an acquaintance as four months' service must be deemed in the army, take upon himself to libel the whole society in the pages of the lowest of the London newspapers, how would such a man be treated? If belonging to the upper ranks, he would naturally be kicked out of society; and to say nothing of an action for libel, he would probably, in most other stations, be dragged through a horse-pond, as a prelude to his disgraceful dismissal from the circle into which he had intruded.

Emboldened, perhaps, by this impunity, Somerville soon afterwards committed the most serious offence of which a soldier can be guilty: he positively refused obedience to a plain and distinct order. He was, of course, tried by court-martial, found guilty, and sentenced to receive two hundred lashes: one-half of this punishment was inflicted, the rest was remitted by the commanding officer. Now, such are the times we live in, that this man's first offence has actually been pleaded in extenuation of his second crime,—an act of direct mutiny,—and for which he might, by the articles of war, have been sentenced to death. But because he wrote a letter slandering his corps, and infringing his duty, he is not to be punished for a direct disobedience of orders! And because this misguided correspondent of the radical press was (as might have been expected) afraid to mount some prancing troop-horse, the doctrine is immediately set up, that a recruit who can write a libel is a better judge of the extent of military authority, than the commanding officer of a regiment. And yet such deplorable stuff is still gravely uttered and listened to in the nineteenth century!!! What indomitable kind of steed Somerville was ordered to mount, we pretend not to say; but certain we are, that there is not a soldier's son, or servant lad turned of thirteen, in the Greys, who would not have delighted in riding for his *coup d' essai* the fierce Bucephalus, that this grown man was, after four months' instruction, afraid to mount. A pretty figure such a hero would have cut when encircled by French Cuirassiers on the

plains of Waterloo! We were once a fearless and an energetic people, and those qualities naturally made us the bravest and most gallant horsemen in Europe; but if we are to take our notions of manly conduct, action, and feeling, from radical writers and political economists, we may speedily say good night to all our greatness, for we shall soon see the 'lords of human kind' metamorphosed into the hucksters of human kind, ready to empty their pockets, and to crouch like chastened hounds, at the first waving of the Autocrat's knout, or the lash of the citizen king.

Two more points must yet be settled with the gentlemen of the radical press, and then we dismiss them for the present:

"———— On men so lost to fame,
We waste no anger, for they feel no shame."

The foolish assertion, that "the people pay the army," having been repeated in the *Times* newspaper, we are again forced to insert what we had formerly occasion to write on the subject. "This is the sort of language often addressed by drunken rustics to soldiers with whom they are squabbling, and it is well enough adapted to that state and station; whether equally well suited to the pages of a very grave review is a different question, but the fallacy of the assertion may be easily shown. No party or set of individuals in the community can say that they pay any of those who contribute by their exertions to the general stock of wealth or productiveness of the country at large; because the pay and income of all is but a sharing of that general wealth resulting from the combined exertions of the entire community. That some may be over and some under paid, is a fit matter for legislative consideration, but cannot possibly affect the principle—that all who contribute by their labour to the general store of wealth, are entitled to share a fair proportion of that wealth. The army, whose exertions keep all the other parts of the body politic together, and in their proper places, and under whose protection the productive labour of the country can alone be carried on, get far less for the dangerous and difficult task that falls to their share, than any other class of the community, and yet, forsooth, they are to be told that the people, or any set of people, pay them. As well might the cabbage in a Dutchman's garden boast of its magnanimity in paying the dike that protects it from the fury of the ocean. Without the dike that here represents the army, the very soil from whence the cabbage derives its full-blown honour, pride, and nourishment, would be swept away by the first spring-tide *."

Though last not least—An attempt has lately been made, not only to circumscribe the power vested in military men over all ranks of their subordinates, but actually to make the subordinates the judges of the extent of the power of their superiors, as well as of the time and circumstances under which such power is to be applied. The mischievous tendency of such doctrines can be equalled only by their incredible stupidity; for military law admits of no modification or gradation of obedience; it admits of implicit obedience alone, and the principle, all iron as it is, must be imperative, because it is intended for the government of an iron profession, though tempered in practice by the knowledge, conduct, and honourable sentiments of the men appointed to stations of command. Those who say that they know nothing of military

* See Fragments, &c. p. 303, United Service Journal, Part I. 1831.

law in civil life, confess in fact, that they know nothing of the law of the land *, for the military law is part of the law of the land incorporated, while it exists, with that law, and founded by the same authority, and made by the same legislators. Nevertheless, it is said, that soldiers are liable to be punished for military acts committed by the command of their officers: theoretically speaking, perhaps, but though not lawyers, we doubt the practical soundness of the doctrine. The Mutiny Bill is renewed every year, and we do not see by what law of reason, which in practice takes precedence of mere statute law, a man can be punished, by an old law, for obedience to a new one, the very enactment of which abrogates, in regard to the soldier, those points of the old or statute law according to which he might, but for the existence of the new one, have been arraigned or punished. This, like many other inconsistent notions, has got into circulation on the mere strength of some of those general and fine-sounding phrases, that, without ever being analyzed or defined, form and guide the opinions of our time with a power and influence far exceeding what the mystic oracles of classical antiquity ever acquired. Because military law does not protect the soldier in the ordinary transactions of life, in which he is, like other men, a free agent, and where military authority is no longer responsible for his conduct, it is at once concluded that he is also responsible when no longer a free agent; but acting under the order, and consequently sheltered by the responsibility, of his superiors. This is an error; for as soon as the soldier acts by superior command, he is under the law of the realm, which admits of no refusal or hesitation, and leaves him no longer a free agent; but, as a natural atonement, also frees him from all responsibility, the full weight of which is then thrown upon the officer, who is appointed to that station of control, as being in the eye of the law considered best qualified to bear the responsibility. To make the soldier a judge of the limits of his obedience to the martial law of the land, and responsible for his conduct when acting under that law by the orders of his superiors, is, to say nothing of its being equal to a disbanding of the army, to take the responsibility from those who are legally considered as best qualified to judge and to bear the responsibility, in order to throw its weight on the shoulders of those who are by the same law considered least capable of supporting such a burden. But, say the wise men of the west, if this doctrine is allowed to prevail no man's life can be safe; an officer may order a soldier to shoot the first person that crosses his path after breakfast. Party folly knows no bounds. May not an officer commit murder without the aid of a soldier? and is not the life of every man in the country at the mercy of his next door neighbour every day of the week? and yet the lieges, reckless mortals, walk the streets in utter forgetfulness that death is staring them in the face from every cutler's shop. Mr. Hume, if his speech on Somerville's case be rightly reported, said, that an army governed by laws exacting implicit obedience from the soldier to his officer, was incompatible with the liberty of the subject. The honourable gentleman, in making this observation, forgot that an army so governed has existed in England for upwards of a century, during which time the liberty of the subject has

* Sir Samuel Romilly said that no man in the country was acquainted with all its laws.

been constantly increasing, whilst the power of the crown has as regularly been on the decline. It is well, indeed, that the schoolmaster is abroad, for he is evidently much wanted. There are, no doubt, plenty of anomalies and contradictions in the laws of England which it may, perhaps, be difficult to reconcile in mere theory, but they not only vanish in practice before the spirit, virtue, and publicity with which justice is administered in the civil and military courts, but they even lend strength to the system, on the same principle that the opposing beams of a building give stability to the whole edifice by the very force with which they press against each other. The martial law of the land has for so long a period of years worked in admirable unison with the other laws of the realm, that we should deeply grieve to see any of its leading features sacrificed to the spirit of modern innovation. And we cannot in truth hold the man over-wise or patriotic, who, in these times of excitement, endeavours to fix attention on the contradictions that, as in all human institutions, may, perhaps, be found to exist also in the theoretical arrangement of our military statute-law, though never discovered in their combined action or application—the only real test of the wisdom of legal enactments.

"A change comes o'er the spirit of our dream."

The officers of the navy and army, particularly the latter, have been accused of hostility to the Reform Bill; there may be some truth in the assertion; and setting politics entirely aside, and considering how ungratefully the professions were formerly used, as shown in our article on promotion last December, we think that their disinterested attachment to the constitution, as it lately stood, reflects on them the very highest honour. They had grown to manhood under that constitution, had been taught to cherish it, were entrusted with its defence, as with the noblest and most valuable birthright of Britons; and though not blind to its anomalies, looked upon it as the most perfect system of government ever devised by human wisdom. During a long and arduous contest, the officers of the army and navy commanded, and were associated with men who, having no other advantages over their enemies, except what they derived from the spirit of their native land, proved themselves, in the most trying situations of war, tempest, and toil, the first and foremost men of all the world. It was natural to take a pride in the land and the laws that produced such men. And the very dangers officers encountered, the privations they endured,—and little can the children of peace know, from mere recital, what these dangers and privations were,—tended to make them proud of, and in some measure to identify them with, the institutions in the defence of which so much noble blood had been shed, so much gallantry displayed, and so much honour acquired.

Those feelings, so creditable to all by whom they were displayed, cannot fail to convince all enlightened men of the devotion to be expected from the officers of the army to the new order of things, simply, because honest patriotism now demands such devotion from them; and because, as before stated, the late change alters in nothing their relative situation or duty; and the higher the exertions it may call upon them to make, the more it shall be welcome. Many of us disapproved, no doubt, of the Reform Bill; but it is now the law of the land, and it is our duty to

honour and obey it, and to forget that we ever knew a constitution differently formed.

When society has attained the high state of civilization now existing in this country, the laws will be found good or bad far more in proportion to the wisdom and virtue with which they are acted up to than to the merit or demerits of their own internal construction; for where publicity is so completely the order of the day, as in England, practice alone soon remedies evils that theoretical legislators might have overlooked. If justice shall be done to our new institutions they will prove good, and we feel confident that there is enough of energy, character, and patriotism in the country to overcome, by virtuous resolution and exertion, whatever defects may at first impede their progress, or whatever difficulties may attend the first working of the new machinery. That such exertions will be called for admits of no doubt; and woful indeed will be the disappointment of those who expect happiness and prosperity from legislative enactments alone.

The possible consequences of such disappointments must give rise to reflections deeply interesting to military men and to the heads of military departments in particular; for we live in times when the quick succession of speculative theories, and a feverish longing after change, are rapidly depriving of their sacred character those old opinions and long-cherished institutions, that, by their moral force alone, kept together the frame of civil society. Under such circumstances, when some popular delusion may at any hour deprive laws and governments of all power to preserve order except what is to be derived from physical force, the maintenance of an army of so high a character as not only to be itself above the influence of delusion, but able to carry even public opinion along with it in the upright discharge of its duties, becomes indispensable, at least till peace and confidence shall again have taken root in the bosom of society. The British army has indeed acquired such a character, and gained, by its conduct in peace and in war, not only the admiration and confidence of its own country, but of Europe; and as its gallantry in the field saved the world from military despotism, so has the reliance universally placed on its honour and conduct lately preserved not our own native land alone, but the whole continent, from anarchy and confusion, as it proved the only stay to which civilization could point with security. But high as this character is, it can only be maintained by continual exertions to keep pace with the increasing difficulties to which the profession must be exposed, and by appointing, to situations of influence, officers who can set their subordinates an example of that conduct, which, resulting from manners, sentiments, and education, professional knowledge, and the consciousness of honourable and upright intention, must, even in these times, secure to the services a continuance of the good opinion and confidence so universally, and as yet so justly reposed in them. This certainly entails a heavy responsibility on the heads of the military departments, who must not forget in such times the truth contained in the remark of Voltaire, that "*Le talent le plus rare en politique et en guerre est de sentir ce que vaut un homme, et c'est là le talent des grands ministères et des grands capitaines.*"

Many there are who no doubt think, or pretend to think, such military precautions altogether needless, as the passing of the Reform Bill, together with the progress of the new ideas now afloat, must, according

to their views, put a final stop to war and violence of every kind. By what process legal enactments are all at once to eradicate from the human breast the passions that so often render an appeal to arms necessary, is very wisely not attempted to be explained. And the foolish notion itself is, we fear, too often fostered and propagated by the low spirit of gain, that looks to temporary commercial profit only, without ever considering the sacrifices of national honour and ultimate prosperity at which it may be purchased. What, indeed, can we find in the character, conduct, and history of men, viewing them from their earliest known records, down to the late capture of Warsaw, to justify an opinion so fraught with mischief and danger?—or must we discard from our recollection all acquired knowledge of the past,—must we forget the fiery scenes so many of us were actors in only a few years ago, and shut our eyes to the very events of the day?—must we exchange the evidence on which the wise and the great of all ages have acted, and on which, in the absence of the revealed will of Providence, men thought they could alone act with safety, for the mere unsupported dicta of radical editors and itinerant declaimers? We have only, it seems, to adopt the doctrines of these men, throw arms aside, and divest ourselves of the martial qualities that constituted the pride of our fathers, and raised the fame and power of our barren island above all the empires of the earth, in order to reap boundless wealth by trade, and endless happiness by the peaceful cultivation of arts and sciences. Vain and miserable delusion! the offspring of ignorance, avarice, cowardice, and envious hatred of the greatness acquired by the lofty and chivalrous qualities on which the independence, and consequent happiness, of nations can alone be permanently secured.

Trade, science, and the fine arts, though sources of great happiness to man, because they call forth and develope the nobler qualities of his nature, tend nevertheless to weaken and enervate the nations that, too exclusively, devote themselves to their cultivation, rendering such states, not only averse to war, but to all enterprises that require force, energy, and personal exertion: so that a people, at the very height of civilization, may easily become a prey to less polished but more warlike neighbours. It therefore behoves every nation that desires to avoid falling into sloth, apathy, and foreign servitude, frequently to exchange the happy, but deceitful, ease of peace, for the toils and dangers of the field.

> "Denn der Mensch verkümmert im frieden;
> Müssige Ruh ist das Grab des Muths,
> Aber der Krieg lässt die Kraft erscheinen,
> Alles erhebt er zum ungemeinen,
> Selber dem Feigen erzeugt er den Muth."

But the strength and courage here spoken of are never acquired by mere trade and the cultivation of arts and sciences; on the contrary, such pursuits beget only a love of ease, of elegance and of luxury, always accompanied with a craving for the wealth by which they can alone be purchased; and this, in its turn, naturally engenders avarice, the baneful source of every species of crime and meanness: so that trade accumulates the hoards that tempt aggression, whilst luxury destroys the qualities by which it can alone be repelled. The Romans easily subdued the cultivated estates of Greece, and the wealthy, though

distant, kingdoms of Asia-Minor, but never willingly meddled with the warlike Germans, that were at the very gates of Italy; and as it was, so it is, and will be again, for the same passions that influenced men two thousand years ago, continue to direct their actions at this very day. All the great empires of Europe have now attained to maturity, and have arrived within arm's length of each other, so that every people, valuing freedom and independence, must not only be hardened to war, inured to the contemplation of battle, and prepared to face, without dismay, the fleets and armies of numerous enemies, their very character for valour and resolution, as well as for firmness in calamities, and perseverance under difficulties, must stand so high as to inspire hostile nations with respect, and force them, for their own security, to refrain from acts of insult or aggression. But a people who would stand thus in the world's estimation, must not be satisfied with merely cultivating the arts of peace; they must also cultivate and understand the arts of war, and be constantly prepared for action. Such a people would have relieved Varna and saved Turkey, would have dispensed with the French rhodomontade expedition into Belgium, and instead of supplying Russia with the funds necessary for the invasion of Poland, their commands alone, backed by the virtuous indignation of mankind, would have arrested the progress of the Muscovite hordes without the firing of a single shot. Nations, on the other hand, who at every thought, or sound of war, shrink back in dismay upon their treasures, and tremblingly strive to repress, instead of honouring and elevating martial qualities, have but a short lease of feverish independence, and must soon submit to the sway of more warlike and energetic, though perhaps less cultivated, adversaries. This was the fate of all the great empires of antiquity, and it will probably be ours, unless we take warning by their fall and their sufferings.

PUNISHMENTS IN THE BRITISH ARMY.

An effort is often made to raise the sympathy of the country against what is termed in the army corporal punishment. Notice has recently been given in the House of Commons of a motion by which to suspend its operation for a certain period.

We shall not attempt to inquire into the motives of the persons by whom this measure has been heretofore advocated, but it may be remarked, that the outcry against the flogging of soldiers convicted of offences, has in general been raised by the very men who invariably advocate every measure having a tendency to retrench either the allowances and pay of the soldier, or the amount of his pension on discharge, to deprive him of a claim for additional pension from his service in the tropics, and to lessen his pay for the short intervals during which, from a combination of fortunate events, which seldom occur, he may be permitted to go on furlough; the exertions therefore of the abolitionists of corporal punishment must be attributed to some motive distinct from a desire to benefit the soldier and ameliorate his condition. It is to be feared, that too frequently it may be traced o an active and persevering desire to innovate upon the customs of the country, and to establish a corrupt popularity with the unthinking part

of the community, if not to sap the discipline of the army, and thereby to remove the last bar to the introduction of democracy, and its consequents, anarchy and devastation.

Before any attempt be made to alter any of the means by which the discipline of the British army has been attained and preserved, the innovators, if they desire to preserve the semblance of patriotic feeling, should pause a moment, and inquire into the relative state of discipline of the several armies in Europe, and observe the punishments which are resorted to in order to maintain that discipline. If any man doubt the fact, that British soldiers plunder less than other armies, and are more completely under the control of their officers on actual service, that they are less feared than other soldiers by the inhabitants of the country which may be the immediate scene of military operations, let him study the history of the late wars, and particularly of those having for their field Portugal, Spain, and France. If such sceptic should question the truth, that the British are more subservient to civil authorities than other armies, that they combine in an eminent degree the highest military feeling with the utmost deference for the laws and institutions of their country, let him look to history, and especially to the events of the last few years. Zeno himself never evinced a more arbitrary command over his passions than the British soldier continually manifests, when assailed by an infuriate mob, whose taunts and insults he equally despises, and for hours stands exposed to their abuse, and often to their missiles without a retort or even a reply; and when at length required to act, he does so with that cool determination which may well attend the consciousness of rectitude. The forbearance of the handful of Dragoons in the first instance, when paralysed by untoward events, and the resolute determination with which they performed their duty when brought to bear upon the miscreants and reforming ruffians at Bristol, is an earnest of the conduct of the British soldiery which may be ever calculated on.

The demagogue and the revolutionist may seek in vain to corrupt the British soldier, and to persuade him that his officer becomes a tyrant and oppressor by enforcing strict discipline, and, when the step is necessary, by inflicting corporal punishment upon the reprobate and hardened character. A British soldier knows full well that his interests, comforts, and convenience are most anxiously attended to by his officers; that if he be not as well clothed, it is no fault of theirs; that he is better fed and taken care of, both at his duty and when sick, than any other soldier. He is aware too that every facility is afforded him for bringing forward any complaint, or even fancied grievance, against his officers; that he can do so without the chance or possibility of punishment, even should his complaint on the first hearing be vexatious and groundless; not only does he know that he can do this at any moment by applying, through the regular channel, to the officer in command, but he has practical experience that the general officers at their half-yearly inspections are required to ask him distinctly, and in unequivocal terms, whether he has any complaints to make, and he may have heard that they are obliged in their reports to state that they have done so. It may be observed incidentally, that the experience of more than a quarter of a century, and frequent inquiry on the subject, has afforded only a single instance of a soldier's complaining at an inspection to a general, and on this solitary occasion, the

complaint was that a favour had been withheld, not that an act of oppression had been committed.

The soldier knows full well, if he conduct himself steadily and does his duty, that he is, as to punishment, independent of his officer; many motives, much stronger than fear, prompt him to his duty; the bonds of mutual regard and respect between the officer and the soldier, the ties of service, must be felt to be appreciated; if defined, they could not be comprehended by those men who would hold up to the soldier as a merciless tyrant the officer who would preserve to courts-martial the power of awarding corporal punishment.* These gentlemen are much impressed with the idea that revolutionary France has surpassed England in the path of liberty and good legislation; they often pretend to contrast the punishments in the French army with those of England, and from the superficial glance which their innovating zeal or their imperfect vision, arising from the *liberal* film, may admit, they draw a conclusion in favour of the French soldier. It may not, therefore, be inapposite to advert to a few of the punishments prescribed for certain offences by the French military code; which, without any discretionary power in the court by which the offender is found guilty, must be awarded and carried into execution without the possibility of mitigation, by an approving officer, as in the British service. An appeal to a council of revision (*conseil de révision*) is, indeed, permitted; but this court, though it has the power of confirmation or of sending the cause for retrial to a council of war, distinct from that first trying it, yet cannot alter the sentence in any degree as to its nature or amount.

The French code *prescribes* the penalty of death in forty-three cases; the English code *permits* it in twenty-one.

In the French army, it is stated, some hundred soldiers suffer death by shooting each year, and that in time of profound peace.

In the English army, a solitary case of capital punishment can scarcely be quoted in many years, and then it arises from desertion to the enemy, or to a foreign country; the military offence is marked by murder, or it proceeds from a flagrant act of felony, and is the punishment which a court-martial, supplying the place of a civil court of judicature in places beyond the seas, is compelled to award.

The French code prescribes irons (*fers*) for two years in eight

* Whilst we write, a dastardly and degenerate mob, urged by a flagitious press, have selected the anniversary of Waterloo as the most fitting day to insult and assail the greatest warrior of whom our country has to boast! Were these miscreants really Englishmen, were they not the scum of London, the very dregs and outcasts of all nations, it would be a blot upon our national character which time could not efface; but it is an alleviating fact, if such there can be, that the men who fought with Wellington at Waterloo, and other discharged soldiers, rallied round their chief and nobly declared that before one hair of his respected head should suffer, they must bite the dust. Such conduct is natural in the British soldier, less could not have been anticipated; but is this a proof that the soldier can be brought to think that the leaders and instigators of such mobs as this, which outraged human nature by insulting Wellington on the very day which consummated his triumphs, are the men who really desire his interests more than British officers, their tried and valued and respected fellow soldiers? If these instigators wish to appreciate individual feeling, let them consult the late police reports, and learn of a private of the grenadier guards, (William Hughes, 3rd battalion,) how a soldier respects his officer, and the same event may in some degree teach him why he does so.

cases; for three years in four cases; for five years in eighteen cases; for eight years in two cases; for ten years in six cases; for twelve years in one case; for twenty years in one case.

The English code gives no power to a court-martial to sentence a soldier in any case to be placed in irons, neither does the custom of the service authorise such punishment.

The French code enjoins that a soldier be kept to the public works (*travaux publics*) from two to five years in one case; for three years in two cases;—the public works chained to an eight-pounder shot (*au boulet*) for five years in one case; for ten years in three cases; for twelve years in three cases.

The English code does not afford to courts-martial, by which soldiers are commonly tried, any power of awarding punishments at all analogous to the *travaux publics*, and particularly *au boulet*. General courts-martial, which are seldom resorted to for the trial of private soldiers, (perhaps in the whole army abroad and at home not six times in twelve months) are empowered to award transportation for life, or for a term of years, for all offences punishable by death. Transportation is, however, scarcely ever applied but in aggravated cases of desertion, and then but rarely.

The French code enjoins imprisonment (*prison*) for one month in three cases; for three months in three cases; for six months in five cases; from three months to one year in one case; for one year in one case; for two years in two cases. Solitary confinement (*réclusion*) from three to five years in three cases.

In the British service, imprisonment and solitary confinement may be applied to any military offence of which a soldier can be convicted, but the extent is limited. The General Commanding-in-chief, by a circular of the 24th June, 1830, has declared that six weeks' solitary confinement is sufficient in almost any case, and three, or at most four, months' confinement with hard labour equally so. The articles of war limit a regimental court-martial to twenty days' solitary confinement and to thirty days' imprisonment.

On a review of the punishments employed in the British army, we find that loss of beer or liquor money for certain periods—loss of additional pay from length of service—loss of time for pensions—imprisonment, not exceeding thirty days by a regimental, and four months by any other court-martial—solitary confinement, not exceeding twenty, or in any case forty-two days, and to which we must add corporal punishment not exceeding 200 lashes by a regimental, or 300 by a district court-martial, are the punishments by which the British army is retained in discipline; and that on comparing the British and French services, they must be set against the frightful and vindictive catalogue we have here given. If to this we add a comparison of the application of capital punishment in the two services, that man's mind must indeed be strangely constituted who would make a deduction in favour of the French system.

Let it not be imagined that the fifteen cases to which the several periods of imprisonment are annexed, which we have noticed, include the punishments most frequently awarded in the French service; the fact is quite the reverse; imprisonment is attached to offences which seldom occur.

As desertion and insubordination occasionally happen in all armies,

we may fairly refer to these offences and the punishments consequent thereto, as affording a fair criterion by which to form an estimate of the severity or mildness of the French and English systems. The French military code distinguishes at least twenty-seven different shades of desertion, the expediency of which is obvious, when it is considered that all punishments in their service are fixed, or, at any rate, the discretion of the court is restricted within certain narrow limits as between two and five years' irons, and this discretionary power occurs only in a very few cases.

Desertion—to the interior, *travaux publics* three years; repetition thereof, *au boulet* ten years; not individual, *travaux publics* five years; when on duty, *travaux publics* five years; by scaling the ramparts, *travaux publics* five years; of a substitute, *travaux publics* five years; from an army or a fortress of the first line, *travaux publics* five years; with property belonging to the public or to the regiment, not in charge, *travaux publics* five years; with property of the public in charge, as horse, arms, &c. *travaux publics* as before; attended by alleviating circumstances, *réclusion* three to five years; with the property of a comrade, *travaux publics*, *réclusion* or *emprisonnement*, three to five years; when under sentence of *travaux publics*, *au boulet* ten years; to a foreign country, *au boulet* ten years; repetition thereof, *mort;* chief of a conspiracy to desert, *mort;* when on sentry, *mort;* to the enemy, *mort*. The punishment *au boulet* is increased by an additional two years if the desertion be not individual; if it occur when on duty of any kind; and if it take place from the army or a fortress of the first line.*

In the British service, the punishment of desertion, as of all other offences, where the private soldier is concerned, is within certain limits discretionary with the court-martial by which the offender is tried. Death and transportation may be awarded by a general court-martial, but as desertion is commonly brought before a district court-martial which has no power to award these extreme punishments, we may almost say, that, in practice, the punishments applicable to desertion are thus limited, viz. corporal punishment, not exceeding three hundred lashes; imprisonment with hard labour, not exceeding four months; solitary confinement, not exceeding forty-two days; loss of additional pay whilst serving, and pension on discharge, which forfeitures are incidental to conviction, and in addition to other punishments which may be awarded.

The desertion most frequently occurring in both services is simple desertion, or desertion to the interior. In the French service, we have seen that the penalty is three years *aux travaux publics*, if the offender be a conscript, five years if a substitute; in the British, it seldom exceeds three months' imprisonment, or five weeks' solitary confinement. Corporal punishment for simple desertion, unattended by aggravated circumstances, is seldom applied. The second desertion in the French service is punished by the *boulet* for ten or twelve years. Soldiers condemned to this punishment have continually attached to them by an iron chain, two yards and a half long, an eight-pounder shot, besides

* The work which has been chiefly resorted to, and which may serve as an authority for the statements here made, is the *Guide des Juges Militaires, par J. B. Perrier*, (*Paris*, 1831,) in which the ordonnances are given at length.

which, they are chained to their prisons except for the ten hours in winter, and eight in summer, in which they are compelled to work, separated from all other workmen, and distinguished by their dress and the growth of their beards, which they cannot cut or shave.

In the British service, a second conviction of desertion might possibly entail a corporal punishment of three hundred lashes, but more probably, unless the circumstances were very aggravating, imprisonment for four months. If a French soldier, after having obtained pardon, fail to repair to the corps assigned to him, or if having joined it, he again desert, he is, without remedy in the court, punished by death. In the British service, the punishment would be much the same as on an ordinary desertion for the first or second time.—In the French service, an insult or a threat to a superior, daily practice proving that it may be from a private to a corporal, is punished without any discretion in the court to five years' irons. In the British service, contempt or disrespect even *to a general or other commanding-in-chief*, is punished at the *discretion* of a general, or a district, or regimental court-martial: the extent of punishment within the power of the superior court to award being limited, as we have before noticed, by the recommendation of the Commander-in-chief to four months' confinement with hard labour, or solitary confinement not exceeding forty-two days.—In the French service, an insult accompanied by an act of violence is punished by death; no minor penalty can be awarded. In the British service, violence to a superior may be punished by death, but any minor punishment, including transportation, may be substituted.—In practice, French soldiers frequently suffer death for striking their superiors, and that superior a non-commissioned officer, in a fit of passion, and without such act being proof of concerted mutiny. In the British service, an instance is not on record of a soldier having suffered death for striking a superior, distinguished from an assault to commit murder, unconnected with premeditated mutiny, and where such act has not been attended by the death of the party.

The parallel between the services might be carried farther, but it is imagined that enough has been brought forward to prove that the punishments in the British army are by comparison neither cruel, vindictive, nor immoderate. The great and essential difference between the French and English service, as to the penalty of death, is this: in the British service the award of death is possible, is permitted in certain cases, but scarcely ever occurs; in the French service, it is *prescribed* in forty-three cases; must take place when awarded; and happens on an average, taking the aggregate of the several divisions of the French army, certainly once in each day, if not much oftener. In the British service, the limited, and, compared to the French code, trifling punishments of imprisonment, solitary confinement, and forfeiture of *extra* pay, have in a great degree set aside the necessity of frequent recurrence to corporal punishment. Though in cases which require immediate example, in the event of marked insubordination, or the frequent repetition of offence, on marches, on embarkation, in cases of confirmed malingering, and on various other occasions, which, with due regard to the discipline of the service, must still be left to the discretion of courts-martial, this punishment cannot advantageously be dispensed with: still, experience has shown that the

power which is vested in courts-martial to apply it, has rendered efficient a system of imprisonment, which in extent does not exceed that which for a trivial civil offence a single justice of the peace may award; and, moreover, it is proved in practice, that by occasionally resorting to this description of punishment, the necessity of the awful alternative, death, may, without endangering the highest discipline, be superseded.

It may be asked, since capital punishment for certain offences, permitted in the British service, is but seldom or never resorted to, would it not be wise to withhold from courts-martial the discretion at present vested in them to award it? It is imagined *not;* the fear of death may deter from the commission of crimes of great magnitude, and the objection which obtains and is contingent on the penalty of death, as applicable to many civil crimes, does not apply to military. In courts of British civil judicature, death must often be awarded where it is never intended by the jury or the judge to be applied; the discretion of the judge is *posterior* to the sentence. With courts-martial, the discretion is *anterior* to the award, and is applied within the settled limits, to the application of a proportionate penalty. The reasoning which would tend to preserve to courts-martial the power to award capital punishment in certain cases of enormity, would also confirm to them the power in all cases of awarding corporal punishment.

We neither advocate the *application* of death, or of corporal punishment, but after some experience in the army, and much reflection, we are decidedly of opinion that the prohibition of either would tend to the deterioration of discipline, and the increase of crime and *punishment.* Abstractedly, the act of torturing a fellow being, and more especially a fellow soldier, must be and is repugnant in the extreme to every man who has the common feelings of his nature; but is not the alternative more dreadful still? Is it of less consequence, or less repugnant to a man of feeling, to be instrumental in depriving a fellow creature of life? And this most assuredly *must* be the consequence, if corporal punishment be not permitted in the British army. Every man who has served any time in the army, must know that there are moments which require the greatest energy, and that the timely application of a single corporal punishment has often checked insubordination in the bud, and put a stop to proceedings which, otherwise, must have resulted in the disgrace and punishment of many. An immediate example is sometimes required; are the abolitionists of flogging, without having recourse to death, prepared to substitute another punishment, which in the execution is so calculated for this purpose?

The discharging a soldier with ignominy, cannot certainly be witnessed without great emotion, but it is desirable to reserve this punishment for thieving and other disgraceful crimes. If soldiers were so discharged for offences not disgraceful to them as men, divested of their peculiar character as soldiers, this punishment would soon cease to have its present effect. Far be it from us, as we said before, to advocate the application of flogging; we are happy to say, that in a service of twenty-five years, we never were the immediate cause of bringing a single soldier to a court-martial; we think a regiment may, under certain contingencies of duty and in favourable quarters, be *preserved* in discipline almost without a court-martial, and certainly with scarcely any corporal punishment; but we are convinced, thoroughly

convinced, that if the power of awarding such punishment were taken from courts-martial, the aggregate of punishment would be far greater, and that the army would degenerate in discipline.

Corporal punishment is objected to by many, as attaching a lasting mark of disgrace to a soldier, breaking, as they say, his spirit, and rendering him ever after crest-fallen and wretched. The men who unfortunately incur and render necessary this severe discipline in the British army, are not of that thoughtful reflecting description to think of punishment beyond the inconvenience occasioned by it; it is the want of these very characteristics which leads them to the halberts. Neither does that degree of disgrace attach to the infliction of corporal punishment which some would imagine. It is the grave offence in the eye of the officer, or the habitual misconduct which has led to this revolting punishment, which marks the degree of disgrace; and as to the comrades of a punished soldier, they do not receive him less cordially, though they are ready to admit the justice and necessity of his sentence, unless he be disgraced as a man, or that his conduct as a soldier in the field be called in question. Soldiers feel much like schoolboys; so long as the knowledge of the infliction of punishment is confined to their own society, they do not attach any *peculiar* degree of disgrace to it. A well-behaved soldier unquestionably considers flogging a very great disgrace, but he does not look upon it as that brand which would for ever cover him with infamy, or render an outcast him who by indiscretion had invoked the punishment. Soldiers feel more insulted by the *talk* that is made by the agitators of the day and abolitionists of this very punishment, than they do by its actual infliction upon offenders. A soldier knows full well that it is sometimes necessary to resort to this punishment, and unless it be applied oftener than is necessary, he never will complain or feel disgusted with the service on account of it. Before the introduction of imprisonment and solitary confinement in the British army, corporal punishment was carried to a terrible excess, and this is not to be attributed to the disposition of the officers, but, in the absence of other means by which to enforce discipline, to the necessity of the case; but since the introduction of these punishments, the officers of the British army have ably seconded the anxious desire which has been and is evinced at the Horse Guards, to reduce the infliction of corporal punishment to the least possible amount consistent with the preservation of discipline.

It is as insulting as it is absurd to talk about the liability of soldiers to corporal punishment, or to taunt them with the possibility of their being flogged. With equal wisdom and applicability may the soldier retort upon these agitating gentry of the House of Commons, or the Editors of the Radical Press, and reproach *them* with being liable to be hanged and *flogged*, ay, flogged by the common law, or transported. In either case, it is *only* necessary that a crime proportionate to the particular punishment shall have been committed, that conviction should have arisen, and the penalty be awarded and executed.

The advocates for the abolition of corporal punishment in the army cannot be expected to admit the force of any reasoning depending on the statute law of England; the liberality of these gentlemen leads them to condemn all existing laws and customs, as emanating from a corrupt source, and enacted by a corrupt legislature. It may, however, be admissible to advert to some of these decried laws, in order to show

that the corporal punishment of a soldier, convicted of crime, is not inconsistent with the ordinary punishment of offenders in civil life.

Destroying or damaging the whole or any part of a tree or trees of any value above one shilling, is punishable, on summary conviction before a single magistrate, by a fine of five pounds and costs, and, in default of payment, by imprisonment with hard labour for four months. Before two magistrates, on a second conviction, by imprisonment with hard labour for twelve months, and, in addition, by *public* or private *whipping* on two distinct occasions. The third offence is punishable by transportation for seven years, or four years imprisonment and *public whipping three times.*—7 & 8 Geo. IV. c. 30. sec. 20 and 33.

Destroying or damaging trees, saplings, or shrubs, of the value of one pound, growing in any park, garden, or pleasure-ground, of the value of five pounds in any other situation, is punishable by transportation for seven years, and imprisonment not exceeding two years, and, in addition, by public or private *whipping thrice.*—7 & 8 Geo. IV. c. 30, sec. 19.

These examples may be multiplied, but it is a fact, the truth of which cannot be questioned, that a single magistrate may on a summary conviction of the offence of damaging a tree to the extent of one shilling, award a penalty of five pounds, and in default of payment, he may commit the offender to prison *with hard labour for four months.* Now this is the precise punishment which the General Commanding-in-chief has declared "sufficient in almost any case" of military delinquency. It is also to be remarked, that two magistrates, on *a summary conviction,* may order the offender to be FLOGGED THREE DISTINCT TIMES; whereas in the army, after a solemn trial, the proceedings of which are recorded, and a copy of which the soldier can subsequently insist on having, to enable him to proceed in an action for damages, two distinct inflictions for the same offence cannot in any case take place, nor can a court-martial award repeated inflictions, though the prisoner be convicted of many offences on the same trial. The difference between civil whipping and military flogging is this,—in military punishments, the infliction is as private as circumstances and the expediency of example of the soldiers will admit, while in civil punishments it is attended with the greatest publicity. In military punishments, the back of the unfortunate offender, if the punishment be carried to any great extent, is more cut than in civil punishments; but in civil punishments it is more bruised than in military, the offender being "carried to some market town or other place, and there tied to the end of a cart naked, and beaten with whips throughout such market-town or other place, till his body be bloody by reason of such whipping," and this, from the clumsiness of the instrument of infliction, cannot often be effected without much injury.

No man who reads the late "Act for consolidating and amending the laws in England relative to malicious injuries to property," (the act itself eccentrically declaring that malice is not essential to the completion of any offence contemplated by it,) and compares the penalties therein declared with the punishments applied to military offences, will venture to assert that military punishments are at all proportionate to those applicable to civil crimes. The leniency of the military code is most conspicuous, as must be admitted by any unprejudiced person.

If we compare the amount of punishment on summary convictions before the commanding officer of a British regiment with the punishments inflicted by a *single* magistrate, the comparison is absolutely ridiculous. Forty-eight hours in the black-hole, or seven days in the defaulters' room, the soldier taking his duty, drills, &c. are the utmost punishments which a commanding officer can of his own authority apply. The civil magistrate may imprison with hard labour for months, and may in his discretion, for many offences, order an offender to be publicly whipped. And in this respect, the British soldier has again the advantage over the French; a French soldier may be placed in solitary confinement eight days on bread and water by order of his commanding officer.

Can these *liberals*, who so strenuously advocate the abolition of flogging, really fancy that they alone can feel for the soldier? Do they indeed believe, or do they imagine, that they can impose the belief upon the soldier, for the most sinister and worst of purposes, that his real interests are better understood by and dearer to them than to the men, whose lives and character and honour so continually depend on the good will, the affection, and regard of soldiers? If indeed these honourable gentlemen, with similar perseverance, strenuously opposed every attempt to lessen the allowances, the pay, and pension of the soldier, and invariably advocated his cause on all occasions, it may be believed that the welfare and benefit of the soldier was their object; but it is notorious that these very men employ their utmost energies to deprive the soldier of his extra pay, acquired by tropical service, and to lessen the amount of his pension on discharge. Not one of them was ready on the late occasion to declaim against the new provision of the Mutiny Act (sec. 44), by which the soldier who may be taken prisoner by misfortune and from wounds, as many at Talavera were, and not from neglect or misconduct, forfeits all claim to increase of pension for the time he may be absent from duty.

The desire is hopeless, axiomatic as the assumptions assuredly are, of convincing these agitating innovators that the British army, under its *present* discipline, (preserved by less personal suffering in the way of punishment than any other in Europe), is the most submissive of all to the civil authorities of their country, absolutely innoxious to its constitution, less to be feared by the inhabitants of the territory which may be the scene of war, and as much to be dreaded by its enemies as any army in the world.

As, however, the ostensible reason which these gentlemen give for their enmity to the army is the danger which it may occasion to a constitution which, in the estimation of many, they are themselves endeavouring to destroy, we shall close our remarks by a short quotation from M. Dupin, against whom these gentlemen have no reason to object on the score of any deficiency of what they, and men who think like them in France, are pleased to term *libéralité;* we are the more inclined to refer them to a French opinion because the admiration which they profess for the *meliorated* laws and institutions of France ever leads them to defer and bend to French authority, and they professedly desire to assimilate the primitive discipline of the British army to that of the French; indeed, so perfect do they conceive that system, that no doubt, if they are consistent, they concur most heartily

in the measure recently adopted by the chief of *libérals*, their Citizen King, in placing his fellow citizens, for he has no "subjects," under martial law.

"Le gouvernement Britannique a trouvé le secret de constituer une armée redoutable seulement aux peuples étrangers et qui regarde comme une partie de sa gloire, l'obéissance à l'autorité civile de sa patrie.

"Ces nobles sentimens sont empreints sur la physionomie du militaire. Il n'a pas cet aspect menaçant et farouche que, trop souvent, sur le continent Européen, on prend pour l'attitude martiale. Son regard insolent ne va pas toiser les hommes et les femmes, avec cette arrogance qui semble dire, c'est moi qui suis la force et la terreur.

"*Aussi, malgré les déclamations des démagogues et des prétendus reformateurs radicaux qui cherchent à renverser la constitution, les citoyens les plus jaloux de leur liberté ne craignent point l'armée Anglaise, telle qu'elle est maintenant organizée.*"—(Vol. ii. p. 35—40.)

Σ.

LOG OF THE LOUISA, OR THE TRIP TO BERLIN.

[The lively and inartificial sketches which follow, are extracted from the correspondence of an officer who accompanied Lord Adolphus Fitzclarence on his recent mission to Berlin, in charge of the Louisa model frigate, presented by his Majesty William IV., to the King of Prussia.—Ed.]

Hanover, June 8, 1832.

My dear ——

Before I proceed to speak of Hanover, I shall revert to Hamburgh, and endeavour to give you some idea of the military force of the Hamburgers.

The Hanseatic towns, namely, Hamburg, Bremen, and Lubeck, furnish a certain contingent to the Diet, and in time of war are always brigaded together. The contingent of the town of Hamburg, alone, is 1500 infantry, 300 cavalry, and a battery of 12 guns. The infantry are dressed in green, with red facings and turnbacks, *à la Russe*, gray trowsers with red edging, and black gaiters and shoes. Their undress is a green jacket with red facings, and green forage-caps with a red band. They wear chacos, with pompons of different colours to distinguish their different companies, and from the centre of some of these pompons hang tassels of worsted to distinguish the characters of the men. The men having white worsted from the pompon, are those of unexceptionable character; those with red, pretty good; and those without any, the blackguards of the regiment. I was told this was the Russian custom. They wear white cross-belts, which, instead of being pipe-clayed, are made of the white patent leather. The pouches are much shorter and narrower than ours, and the jigger is fastened on the outside of the bayonet-belt, instead of underneath as with us. Their firelocks are much longer, but their bayonets shorter than ours. Their barrels are bright and the slings red. They are very badly set up, carry their arms badly, have no idea of touch, and individually are very dirty soldiers; but still with all these imperfections on their heads, even these Hamburgers have a more soldier-like, nonchalant air than our

men. They are a fine body of young men; but their officers are very old, and not much more gentleman-like in their appearance than their men. In every movement, whether deploying, forming column, &c., a drum always beats a march so as to keep them in time, and they certainly were not over-particular as to *how* their movements were performed. The lancers are a very fine body of young men, very well dressed and soldier-like in their appearance, well appointed and not badly mounted; their dress is that of the Polish lancer. The artillery are dressed like the French with blue, and red epaulettes. Their horses are miserable; however, considering they are not a warlike people, the three arms were very respectable. Independent of these regular troops, there are 14,000 of the Burgher Garde in the town of Hamburg, infantry, cavalry, and artillery. They are dressed in dark-blue frock coats with light blue collars, and blue trowsers with light blue stripe, white cross-belts and chacos. The cavalry have the same colour and facings, only jackets instead of long coats. So much for a part of the Hanseatic army. I saw some Danish soldiers at Altona, where there is a garrison of 200 men. Their uniform is a deep brick-dust red and light blue facings, and trowsers of the same colour. Their facings are buttoned back. If the Danish army are like their representatives in garrison at Altona, I cannot say much for them, as they are very ill set up, and excessively dirty in their appearance.

The frigate (Louisa) having at last started, after Lord Adolphus had overcome every difficulty which they could devise, and which were not a few, we left Hamburg for Hanover at ten o'clock, having embarked in the steamer for Harburg, where we arrived at twelve, and found all ready to start. Harburg is a Hanoverian town, and we were reminded of old England by the W's, and the King's arms which abounded throughout the towns, and with an occasional red-coated soldier moving through it. We travelled all night and arrived at Hanover the next morning at seven o'clock. The only thing worthy of mentioning during our night journey was, our post-boy and horse tumbling head over heels three times in about the space of three-quarters of a mile. It was most amusing to see the coolness with which the post-boy took it. He did not change a muscle, only said 'der Satan,' and mounted as if nothing had happened to ruffle his temper. Luckily for the poor devils, both horse and man, we arrived safe, and without further accident, at the end of our journey.

As soon as we had breakfasted we drove to the Duke's house in Hanover, to write our names down for him, and then went to Montbrillant, to do the same for the Duchess. We found the Duke there and nothing could be kinder than his reception. He asked us to dine with him every day during our stay at Hanover, which we accordingly did. The first day after dinner, we went to the play with the Duchess; and the second day, the Duchess had a concert. The morning we arrived we went through the King's stables, where we saw some very fine horses. Among others a mouse-coloured set, which the Duke told us were now not to be had. We saw a horse which is to be sent over in August for the Queen to ride. It is strawberry, beautifully marked, and I never saw anything more perfectly tempered or broke in: for a lady's horse, it is perfect, as its temper and mouth are both excellent. We

went over the armoury which contains 50,000 stand of arms. The Duke and Duchess were so kind as to take us to see Herrenhausen and Wallwoden; the suite at the former are beautiful, and hung in different-coloured silk. The orange-trees are also celebrated for their size, and the garden is laid out in the French style,—but you must recollect it perfectly. I rode with the Duke to see the grenadiers at their drill, and then to the jägers and hussars; an account of all of which corps I will give you in my next letter.

Berlin, June 16th, 1832.

I think I gave you an account of our operations up to the day we left Hanover, and promised to give you an account of the Hanoverian troops I saw. I rode with the Duke of Cambridge at six o'clock the day after we arrived, to see the Grenadier Guards, who were at squad-drill. They are a fine body of men. Their squad-drill, as far as I saw, for they were all at close files, was the same as ours—only not the same attention paid to their marching as with us. They throw their legs up, and stamp in their marching: their length of pace and time appear very much the same as ours. They labour under very great disadvantage in their drill, as every year one-fourth of the regiment is dismissed from the service, and replaced by a fresh levy. The whole are drilled together for two months every year, and then, with the exception of the last fourth just joined, go on furlough. The last fourth remains to do the garrison duty. Thus a regiment continues discharging and renewing one-fourth of its number every year. In the artillery and cavalry this is different: the men enlist for a certain time, generally ten years. The Grenadier Guards are dressed in the old uniform of our Guards, and with the regulation English fusilier cap, large brass plate like the 23d regiment, in front, and the white horse behind. The belts are very narrow, and the pouches of different shape to ours: they have a second row of ammunition, and contain sixty rounds; but never carry any, unless particularly issued. They wear white trowsers and gaiters; and in undress, our white kersey jackets. The officers have got a new uniform, the same as our officers of the Guards, with the star of the Guelph on the collar; but the embroidery on the skirts is different. The officers of the whole army wear an undress frock-coat, blue with red collar, and double-breasted. The Jägers are a particularly neat body of young men, and very well chosen for their particular service. They are dressed like our Rifles, except that the officers wear silver wings. When I saw them they were also at squad-drill, and occasionally teaching the extending, closing, &c. Their rifles have got the percussion locks; and the officers told me that they found them answer remarkably well, and did not find that they were more easily put out of order by a slovenly soldier, than the flint lock. The officers were drilling the squads, and appeared to give their directions with clearness, and to know what they were about. From the short time they have for drill, they are unable to give up much time to setting the men up. For a certain number of days they are at squad-drill, are then formed into a company, and sent to company-drill; then formed into a battalion for drill; and, lastly, into brigade. As we arrived at the beginning of their drill, I did not see them in battalion. The hussars now in gar-

rison at Hanover are a very fine regiment; particularly soldier-like in their appearance, and very well mounted: they wear the fur hussar-cap. Colonel Kraukenberg commands them. Many of them had the Waterloo medal. They do not pay the same attention in the army there, that we do, to the men's hair being cut short, which I think makes a very great difference in their appearance. At Hildesheim I saw a few soldiers of the line; they were dressed in their new clothing, which is exactly like ours, only I thought better made. I did not see any of the heavy dragoons, lancers, or horse-artillery, as they were all in country quarters.

From Hanover we went to Brunswick, and after breakfast called upon the Duke. He was out, but called soon after at our hotel, and invited us to dine with him; and offered us horses, carriages, &c. We dined with him, and after dinner amused ourselves pistol-shooting, &c. We then rowed in his boat down the river to a country-house, where we had tea, &c. We had capital fun, as two or three fat Majors and Colonels, who had as much idea of rowing, as I have of preaching a sermon, took an oar, and the consequence was, that sundry crabs were caught; and as to rowing in time, it never entered for a moment in their heads. We went over his stables, which are very nice ones, and he has got some very good English horses. His troops are excessively well-dressed and appointed, and fine young men; but when you look minutely into them, they are individually dirty. A battalion of grenadiers wear the old Austrian cap, very much cut off behind, and the back is red and white cloth. We went over the hussar stables and barracks; the latter in very good order, clean, and well ventilated. They are badly mounted. The undress of the privates is the kersey jacket. The Jäger battalion is a very fine one, and the only one which retains the old uniform, black and light-blue facings; all the others are *à la Prussienne*. The town of Brunswick is very clean, and the streets broad and houses good—the hotel particularly so. The remains of the palace are still there, but they are making a foundation for a new one.

From Brunswick we drove to Magdeburg, one of the strongest Prussian fortresses; here, for the first time, I saw the Prussian troops. The 8th and 12th regiments were stationed there; they are beautifully dressed, magnificently appointed, and their appointments most perfectly fitted. They still wear the trowsers and gaiters all in one as formerly, but generally have them the same as ours, only with white straps. The cloth trowsers are very well made, with a red edging; the pouches are heel-balled, and have the Prussian arms in brass upon them; their coats are worn folded, as formerly. We went to see the cathedral at Magdeburg, which is a splendid building; the pulpit is of white marble, and beautifully sculptured. The fortifications are very strong. The celebrated Baron Trenck was confined in one of the dungeons there, and La Fayette had also the pleasure of residing there. From Magdeburg we went to Brandenburgh, formerly the Prussian capital. It is a stupid place, with nothing to see. This was the first place where we could hear whether the frigate had passed, but, to our annoyance, we could gain no intelligence of her. Smart and Sparshott, therefore, started to look after her, and we

went on to Potsdam to wait until we heard from them. Lord Adolphus intended to have remained there incog. until certain intelligence was received of the frigate; but the King, having heard of our arrival, sent Colonel de Massau, his first aide-de-camp, from Berlin, to attend us; and he brought a command to dine with his Majesty the next day, at the new palace, which is about a mile from Potsdam. The dinner took place at *two o'clock;* we, of course, went in uniform. Nothing could exceed their wish to mark their attention to Lord Adolphus: he was received at the entrance by Prince Albert, the King's youngest son, who ushered us into the room where we were to assemble for dinner. Here we were introduced to ministers, chamberlains, and generals without end; and soon after the members of the royal family arrived, when we were presented to them. Lord Adolphus then was ushered into the King's closet, where he delivered the letter from the King. His Majesty soon after made his appearance, when we were presented. He addressed me with his usual affability. On the arrival of the Queen of Bavaria we went to dinner. We sat down, eighty, in the marble hall, which is splendid. During dinner one of the bands of the guards played. There was no style in the dinner, considering it was regal, and after what you showed me in the banquetting-hall at St. James's. There were neither gold nor silver cups, or epergnes, or any display of plate. The Princess Liegnitz, the King's wife, is a very nice person; but as I had heard so much of her before I saw her, I was rather disappointed. Prince Otho, of Bavaria, the new King of Greece, was there; he is one of the ugliest men I have ever seen. All the princesses are very good-looking, and the Princess-royal appears a very delightful person. The princes appear to take great pleasure in speaking English. It is lucky that our mission was not diplomatic, as all the diplomatic characters are completely excluded from the court. It is a most extraordinary thing, but Mr. Chad tells us it is so. No foreign minister was at the dinner, nor are they ever, except, I believe, twice a year, invited. We go this evening to Potsdam to a dance at Prince Charles's, at which the King is to be present; and to-morrow we again dine with his Majesty; but Mr. Chad is not invited. We expect to find the frigate at Potsdam this evening, as we have heard from Sparshott that she is all right, and will, probably, be there to-day. They had great obstacles to surmount, as the water was so shallow the steamer could not go up, and they have, therefore, been obliged to pull her up against a strong tide, and not making more, on an average, than twenty English miles a day. You cannot conceive how anxious they all are to see her, particularly Prince Charles, who is very fond of sailing, and lives on the lake, which is very large, the water deep, and the banks very pretty. I am sorry to say there is nothing military going on—no drills whatever. In September two corps d'armée are to be up here, amounting to forty thousand men, the strongest they have had for a very long time. I hear the King *rowed* them a great deal at the summer reviews, and was very much displeased at their performance. In September there will be about thirty-eight battalions of infantry, besides cavalry and artillery.

Berlin, June 18th, 1832.

I think my last letter ended with our first dinner with the King near Potsdam, since which time nothing could be kinder or more marked than the attention of the whole of the Royal Family to us. After dinner the whole party drove up to Berlin to go to Taglioni's benefit at the opera. Lord Adolphus went to the royal box; the ballet was La Sylphide, and nothing could be more beautiful than her dancing. I think the orchestra, scenery, and decorations much superior to ours, and the figurantes also much better. After the opera we drove to Mr. Chad's, our Minister here—a very delightful person, who was so kind as to give us quarters, there not being a place to be had at any of the hotels, in consequence of the Queen of Bavaria passing through with so many people, and the Berlin races beginning on Saturday, so many people came up from the country: the next morning we had to pay about forty visits of ceremony to the different people about the court, only ten of them however in person; and none of these were at home.

The Berlin races began on the 18th; the course is about three miles from the town on the Potsdam road. This is their third year. The course is about two and a half English miles, but the ground, being sandy, is very heavy; the trainer is an Englishman, and they have got several English horses: there were two races, with leaping, one rode by jockies, the other by officers. To our ideas it appears most extraordinary to see a race-course covered with cocked hats and feathers, stars, and decorations of all kinds, but so it was; the whole of the officers were in as full dress as if they were going to dine with the king; in fact the whole thing was military. Before the horses started, they were brought past the king headed by an officer in full uniform; the stewards were all officers; and those to keep the ground equally so. Lord Adolphus was placed in the king's stand, and we were put into the committee stand, which joined the royal one. I do not think John Bull would have stood so quietly as the Prussians did at the distance they were at; none of them except with tickets were allowed to be near the winning post. The course was circular, and the stands were on one part of the circumference opposite to the winning-post: the populace at a most respectful distance, and out of sight of it. After the first day's race we dined with the Hanoverian minister, and then drove to within three miles of Potsdam, to Prince Charles's, who gave a dance. His house is situated on the lake on which the frigate is to remain; on our arrival we found every body in the greatest delight at the frigate having arrived quite safe that morning; and soon after we were joined by Sparshott and Smart, who gave us an account of their proceedings since they left us; they had had a great deal of hard work and sundry difficulties to overcome from the shallowness of the water and the strength of the tide; they made on an average about twenty English miles a day. We had a great deal of dancing,—waltzes, gallopes, mazurkas, and quadrilles; as soon as it got dark the gardens were illuminated, which had a beautiful effect. They have a very odd custom, namely, that when the party is a private one, after you have made your bow and just before the dancing begins you are told to take off your epaulettes and swords; this they are able to do very easily as they are only buttoned on, but it has a very curious ap-

pearance. You have no idea how particularly kind the king and the whole of them were to us.

We slept that night at Potsdam, as the king was to review two battalions of the guard after church. We went there at eleven o'clock; it was a splendid sight: the third battalion of the first regiment of Guards and a battalion of Jägers were those reviewed. The former were in three ranks, the latter in two; we went down the ranks with his Majesty, and they then marched past in quick time: they are beautifully set up, and nothing could be better than their marching past, but I do not like their marching, which is with the knee stiff and a great deal of stamping; they also cast their eyes to the saluting point, but still their reverse shoulder was not brought up in the least; however I like our marching much better. After the parade we went to see some of the *lions* of Potsdam, and then drove to Prince Charles's, where we embarked in his boat to join the king at the Pfausen Insel (Pheasant Island), where we were to dine with him. This is an island on the lake, and the frigate is to be anchored off the palace. On our embarking, the English and Prussian flags were hoisted together at the mast-head, and on our arrival we found our standard flying at the flag-post of the palace. I merely mention this to show you in small particulars how much was done to please us. Prince Charles went on board the frigate, and you cannot imagine his delight when he saw the manner in which she was fitted up; the king said it was a great trial to his curiosity not going on board, but that he was determined not to go until she was reported ready. He has settled to take it over on Friday next. After dinner we drove about in droschkis all over the grounds, which are beautiful, and put one in mind of the Jardin des Plantes at Paris, as every hundred yards you find places containing curious birds, beasts, &c. After we had seen all these, we went to the Montagne Russe, where we amused ourselves for some time—the king taking also a course down the Montagne. After tea we returned to Berlin to see Taglioni, who I am sorry to say leaves this on Thursday next; however as it is for England, I hope we shall see her there. The frigate was taken off the flat boat yesterday, and sailed about for two or three hours; she looked beautiful, and has not suffered in the least from her voyage.

Berlin, June 24th, 1832.

As we leave this to-day after dinner for Dresden, I will let you know all that took place from the time I last wrote to you to the present. The day after the review, &c. as described in my last, we went to the races and dined with Prince Augustus of Prussia, first cousin to the king. He is a fine-looking man, a general of artillery, and they say one of their best officers. On the following day, we again dined with the king at his summer palace near Berlin, called Charlottenburg. It was quite a private party, no strangers there except ourselves; and we consequently dined in a sort of lodge separated from the palace, and of which the king is very fond. After dinner we went over the palace, which is beautiful; the suite of rooms is very fine. In the gardens there is a beautiful monument to the late Queen, who is buried there. After dinner we went to see Meyerbeer's opera of Robert the Devil, performed for

the first time. Meyerbeer himself led the orchestra, and it is impossible to hear anything finer than their playing. The scenery and decorations were perfect, but the opera was altogether too long. Taglioni danced for the last time here, and started the same night for England. The next morning Lord Adolphus and I went with Prince Albrecht to see the barracks of the cuirassiers of the guard; it is a very fine building, each room contained six men; the shell of the beds was of iron, the other part wood; the rooms were very well ventilated and clean, and the appointments hung in an uniform manner. The stables were very good, and each squadron had a mess-room: we also went to the infantry barracks of the regiment of the guards, called the Emperor Alexander's. The building was old and not so good as the cuirassier barracks, but still was very fair; each battalion had its own mess-room, and the cooking was done by steam. They have much less meat than our men, and the cooks are permanent, not taking it in turn as a duty. The soldiers have no regular breakfast, they get what they like. We again dined with the king at Charlottenburg, but as the Prince and Princess of Hesse were expected, it was a grand dinner; we therefore dined in the palace, and sat down between sixty and seventy people. The Prince of Hesse is a brother of the Duchess of Cambridge, and a very good-looking man. During dinner the King ordered the band to play "Rule Britannia" in compliment to Lord Adolphus. After dinner we all drove in different sorts of carriages round the grounds, which are very pretty. Prince William, the king's son, took leave for St. Petersburg, but returns for the reviews; he is a very delightful person, particularly gentlemanlike, and very soldierlike in his appearance. He commands a division of the guards and a corps d' armée.

The frigate having been reported ready, and the king having fixed upon the 22d to receive her, we went down to the Pfausen Insel early to meet the king, who had named half-past eleven o'clock as the hour. As soon as his Majesty was ready, he was rowed on board by Smart and Sparshott, Lord Adolphus steering. He insisted on going in the frigate's boat instead of his own. Mellish and I went on board to receive him. I did *jolly marine*, at the gangway, to perfection. Having rowed round the frigate, he came on board, and the moment he did, the English ensign was struck, and the Prussian one hoisted at the peak, and the standard at the main. Mellish then made him a *neat and appropriate* speech, in German, for Lord Adolphus; to which the king replied that he was most sensible of the kindness of the King of England in sending him the present; and that he felt the attention still more in his having selected one of his sons to be the bearer of it. You have no idea how delighted he was with it. After he had received the frigate, the whole of the royal family came on board. They were all enchanted with it; and as there were some who had never seen a ship, you cannot imagine how astonished they were. We now took a cruise, followed by all the boats that could be mustered, but had not quite wind enough for exercising. We sailed about for an hour, and then returned to dinner. We dined in the open air, and places were laid at the royal table for our party; the people of the court dined at other tables. During dinner the King gave the "Health of the King of England;" the "Navy of England;" and the "Recollections of 1815," where

our two armies fought together. The band played "God save the King," and "Rule Britannia." It was an animating scene.

We amused ourselves about the island until tea-time; after tea we took leave of the King and all the royal family. He said that he regretted that he could not speak English sufficiently well to thank us as he could wish, in that language, for the trouble that had been taken in bringing over the frigate; that he was glad to have made our acquaintance, and should be always glad to see us again. The whole of the princes said they would not say goodbye to me, as, being a soldier, they hoped I would return to their reviews in August and September, which are to be on a much larger scale than they have had for years. Duke Charles of Mecklenburg, who will command, told me there would be about forty-two battalions, and forty-four squadrons, besides an immense quantity of artillery. The third corps d'armée march into camp on the 25th August, close to Berlin. He said if I would come he would point out the whole minutiæ to me. In fact, you cannot conceive what charming people they all are; and amongst them all the most delightful is the princess royal, with whom we went to sup at Sans Souci, after we left the King. She is a great friend of her Majesty's (our gracious Queen), and was constantly asking about her. The day after we had given over the frigate, the King sent us all presents. Lord Adolphus got the Grand Cross of the Red Eagle and some beautiful china from the King; Smart and Sparshott the Cross of the Red Eagle; Mellish, a beautiful snuff-box, set in diamonds; and your humble servant a beautiful vase, with the King's likeness on one side, and a view of Potsdam, from the Pfausen Insel, on the other. It stands about a foot and a half high, and he desired Massau (the aide-de-camp who brought it) to say that he had selected this view, in order that I might not forget the pleasant day we had passed on the island from which the view is taken.

Thus ended our Berlin trip, which I shall always look back to with the greatest pleasure.

LETTERS FROM THE WEST INDIES.

No. II.

St. Ann's, Barbadoes, 18th April, 1832.

Some weeks ago I had the honour of transmitting to you a letter from British Guiana. I did not then mean to trouble you with a second, till I saw whether my first recruit passed examination, and had a place in your red and blue muster-roll.

A visit on duty to Barbadoes and a great deal of idle time have, however, provoked this second essay.

Alas for poor Barbadoes! What devastation and ruin presented itself as the army brigantine, the Duke of York, stood in for Carlisle Bay! The beautiful fringe of cocoa-nut trees which lined the bay to the water's edge all blown down—houses all unroofed—streets lined with heaps of stones

and bricks from the fallen buildings—the garrison of St. Ann's in the same frightful state! I am only astonished, where such large stone and brick buildings, as the soldiers' barracks were, fell in, and in the night too, and when crowded with troops, that so few lives were lost.

It is quite delightful to see the health of the troops in Barbadoes. The 36th regiment look as ruddy and as well as they could do in England; and the 93d Highlanders, after eight or nine years' service in the West Indies, (though certainly their ranks cannot now display the same kind of splendid-looking young men, whom I admired so much in their national costume when in Ireland some twelve years ago,) still look well and efficient under arms, and with a *M'Gregor* as their chieftain —although many a gallant Gael has since been deposited by his comrades in his last home, in the remote burying-grounds of St. Lucia and Dominica, far, far away from the "land of the mountain and the flood."—In pace quiescant!

I am sorry to see our excellent chief, Sir James Lyon, not looking so well as the service could wish him. I fear the situation of Governor of a West India colony must now be an ungrateful office, and that even officers of the distinguished rank and talents of Sir James Lyon or Sir B. D'Urban find themselves placed in an embarrassing situation both with the government at home, and the planter out here, from the change which is being enforced in the whole system of negro slavery; and I very much fear that these gallant and excellent chiefs may be so disgusted with the local opposition which the colonists are trying to set up, that they may not choose to retain their governments, and then it is to be feared the army in the West Indies will not soon see their like again. I am sorry to find a general court-martial sitting, and that more than one officer is to appear on trial at its bar. Why are there so many more general courts-martial in the West Indies, than anywhere else? Is it the idleness of the place, or some peculiar effect of the climate which makes men so litigious here? Perhaps both,—the latter by an over secretion of bile, generated by a hot sun, high living, and little exercise. But so it is that few regiments escape courts-martial in the West Indies.

After nearly three years' residence in the pestilent swamps of Demerara and Berbice the climate of Barbadoes seems enchanting. There is a freshness and cool liveliness in the sea-breeze as it reaches you, fresh from the Atlantic, which raises the spirits like drinking Champaigne. Then the nights so cool, and the entire absence of musquitoes and sandflies, make me rejoice in my tent, for the whole garrison is yet under canvass.

I am quite sure this island is one of the healthiest garrisons abroad, (more so I think than either Gibraltar or Malta,) and will be, when the barracks are rebuilt, one of the pleasantest. Its principal evil to the regimental officer is, I think, the expensiveness of the place, and the dearness of provisions: the latter evil is common to all the stations in the West Indies, but perhaps St. Ann's, Barbadoes, is more peculiarly expensive from its being the custom of the messes to give frequent costly entertainments, at which Champaigne and other expensive wines are freely introduced. It puzzles me to know how a subaltern on his pay manages to clear off his monthly wine and mess bills.

It has often occurred to me that sufficient use and advantage is not

made of this, at once the most windward, and by far the healthiest, garrison in the West Indies.

Had I the power I would withdraw white troops altogether from British Guiana, and partly from the most unhealthy of the other islands.

I would establish a garrison here in Barbadoes of five or six regiments as a disposable force, and have a steamer and a transport or two always ready in Carlisle Bay to go to sea at a moment's notice.

I would replace the white troops removed from British Guiana by a mounted gen-d'armerie of free black or coloured people, who should be raised and paid and officered by the colony, and distributed in a chain of posts, much as the police force in Ireland now are.

This force being mounted and well equipped, and composed of men who are natives of the climate, and who will always be effective, will at all times be able to enforce the orders of the colonial magistrates and fiscals.

To enable the colony to maintain this force (and if well recruited, well paid, well mounted, and well armed, it need only be a small one, say some two hundred privates), a proportioned reduction should be made in the sugar and coffee duties.

In the event of an insurrection of negroes, or apprehension of attack from an enemy (the latter while our flag is triumphant at sea cannot be), then an *effective* body of troops could be immediately sent off from Barbadoes, and would land in a few days wherever they were wanted; and this would be a *really* effective force. Whereas (I speak from experience) had military aid been demanded from the garrison of Berbice, at any period during the months of August, September, or October last year, not more than twenty men (out of a garrison of about two hundred or two hundred and fifty) could have been found able to parade at all, and these men would not probably have been able to march and carry their arms and ammunition for a mile. The whole strength of the garrison was paralyzed by the fever and ague of that tropical Walcheren, and the white troops were an ideal not a physical force. At Demarara, the case was much the same. Is not the attempt then to keep up a garrison of European soldiers in such a climate absurd as well as cruel? And is it not *bad economy?* (alas that this word weighs more at the War-Office than either wisdom or humanity!)—Does not every one of the European soldiers, who die every year by hundreds in that Golgotha, Guiana, cost government much money before (after being enlisted, clothed, and trained) they are landed in the West Indies? Perhaps Mr. Hume could tell us how much.

Well, my plan would save this, whatever it may be—but I beg pardon for attempting to tarnish your pages with such a Shylock argument.

No, Mr. Editor, it would do more—much more! it would save the lives, and preserve the health and vigour of thousands of our gallant soldiers.

Σ.

SKETCHES OF THE WAR OF THE FRENCH IN SPAIN IN THE YEAR 1823.

BY A ROYALIST.

NO. III.*

Some of the proceedings of the Government of the Cortes about this time, afforded a striking contrast to the supineness which had hitherto characterised the acts of this sapient and upright body.

A decree was issued, subjecting the whole of the inhabitants of the town of Ciudad Real to the payment of a heavy fine, because, as the decree stated, "*some of the citizens of that place were suspected of royalism.*" Another decree ordered the property of the whole of the citizens of the town of Cauniga to be confiscated, because, it was asserted, some young men of the place had joined the bands of the faith. It is scarcely necessary to add, that these were mere pretences, resorted to by the Cortes to get hold of some cash with which to satisfy the clamours of the troops, to whom arrears of pay were due: nor were these the only towns, or individuals, who were thus mulcted to effect the object in question. When we reflect upon the open, shameful, and most flagrant manner, in which the public money had been embezzled and appropriated by the Cortes, it will not appear by any means astonishing, that the troops should not have been regularly paid; and as an instance of the bare-faced depravity of these reformers, it is proper to state, that at a time when they had thus recourse to the undisguised pillage of their fellow citizens, in order to pay the army, they, by a formal act of Cortes, voted a considerable salary to be paid from the public purse to each deputy of Cortes, in other words, to each one of themselves. This was the act of a legislative body, composed of one deputy for every 50,000 inhabitants of the kingdom, every male person above the age of twenty-five years being entitled to vote: the provincial deputies, exclusive of those of the colonies, amounting to 208, with 68 supernumeraries, which latter were called to sit in the event of the death, illness, or necessary absence of the regular deputies. Let me implore my readers, whether civil or military, to pause at this point, and weigh these proceedings on the part of the reformed government of Spain; they will then, perhaps, be able to answer me the question—is a parallel to such villainy to be found any where, save in the annals of popular govern-

* An occurrence which took place at Behobie on the 7th of April, when the advance of the first corps passed the Bidassoa, ought to have been narrated in No. II. of these Sketches, as illustrative of the spirit by which the French army was animated, and as redounding to the credit of Mareschal de camp de Vallin, who commanded upon the occasion.

On the southern bank of the stream, about two hundred Frenchmen, dressed in the uniform of the ex-Imperial guard, stood waving a tricoloured flag, and singing revolutionary songs. Upon Monsieur de Vallin ordering a piece of cannon to be pointed at them, they only shouted "Vive l'Artillerie!" This was rather too much, and was replied to by Monsieur Vallin with the cry of "Vive le Roi," and the command to fire,—the artillerymen obeyed, and the greater part of the tricoloured cohort bit the dust, the remainder scampered off, and no further attempts of the kind took place in the course of the campaign.—R.

ments? It is needless to add, that after the passing of the law for salarying the deputies of Cortes, the appointment became eagerly sought for at the hands of the mob, by every bankrupt in purse and reputation: the acceptance of the situation continuing all along wholly voluntary.

At Seville, the sittings of the Cortes were resumed on the 23rd of the month, by a speech of the President, Flores Calderon, in which he described in boastful and inflated language, the journey of the committee from Madrid to Seville, and predicted the certain defeat and destruction of the invading army.

On the 25th of the month, the Cortes adopted the plan of defence for the country, which was set forth in a decree, ordering the formation of guerilla corps *in the provinces occupied by the enemy*, and regulating the mode of paying and officering the same.

On the 26th, the Minister for Foreign Affairs read to the assembly a most singular and ridiculous document, viz. a declaration of war on the part of Spain against France, in which having had recourse to such a measure was stated to have been solely caused by the usual verbal formalities having been dispensed with by France, when her troops crossed the frontiers in a hostile manner. The King had, as usual, been compelled by threats of personal violence to sign this document, which, indeed, seemed a last-expiring effort of fatuity on the part of the ministry, for, at the same sitting, it was intimated to Cortes, that Barros, Minister of the Interior, and Badillo, the Minister of the Colonies, had resigned; and next day it was announced that Velasco, the Minister of *Justice*, had followed their example. In their places, Don Manuel Mariatigui was named Minister of the Interior, Don Manuel Muñoz Minister of the Colonies; and although, under such a Government, the office of Minister of *Justice* might, with much propriety, have been allowed to continue in *abeyance*, the place was filled up by the name of Don Jose Calatrava; and Don Mariano Zoraquin was, at the same time, appointed to the vacant post of Minister at War.

At this sitting, the following decrees were also resolved upon, the last of which, as truly illustrative of the sense, efficiency, and honesty of the enlightened body from whom it emanated, I present at full length to the reader. On such projects were the hopes of the successful defence of regenerated Spain founded!

1. All towns and villages subject to the conscription, shall be bound to replace the deserters during one year from the date of the levy.

Three subsequent articles contain provisions for carrying this measure into effect.

Another decree followed to this effect:—

1. The Government is authorised to form foreign corps.

2. There shall be admitted into the said corps, all foreign refugees, or *deserters*, or (foreigners?) who may come thither to defend the cause of liberty.

3. In each army of observation, or with the general in chief, there shall be formed a commission, consisting of three foreigners, known for their opinions, and which, in the judgment of the general officers, afford a complete guarantee for their conduct and their intentions.

4. These generals, chiefs, and foreign officers, shall have the rank

which they enjoyed in their own country, and shall be incorporated with others of the same nation in the corps which are forming.

5. The companies, battalions, or squadrons, shall be on the same footing, and composed of the same number of men as the corps of the Spanish army.

6. The formation of a second company shall not be commenced, until the first be completed. The same course shall be observed with respect to the third company, and so on, until the battalion be completed.

7. The promotion in the corps shall proceed on the same basis as in the Spanish army.

8. In each army of observation, such corps shall be named "*The Liberal Foreign Legion.*"

On the faith of the efficiency of such support, Abisbal still appeared to maintain a confident front at Madrid, where, reinforced by Espinosa, he was said to have under his command a force of all arms, amounting to 12,000 men, of the *élite* of the Spanish army; but this computation, as it afterwards appeared, was much exaggerated.

In his front the celebrated guerilla chief, the Empecinado, endeavoured to collect the straggling Constitutionalists. This man, who had done his country good service in the former war with the French, had been amply rewarded by Ferdinand the Seventh. He had been promoted in the service, pensioned, and ennobled; and as if to demonstrate to future generations the gratitude of his prince, his *nom de guerre* had been exchanged into a patronymic by royal decree, and rendered hereditary in his family. In return, he had seized an early opportunity of turning upon his King and benefactor, in the hour of need; and there was no mode in which he thought he could injure and insult his Sovereign, which he left untried.

The only operation which he undertook to assist in the military defence of the capital, was one of a very singular character, being no other than an attempt to capture and carry off the Countess O'Donel, the wife of Don Carlos O'Donel, from the city of Valladolid, where this lady resided during the absence of her husband, who was one of the most faithful and attached of the King's friends. In this cowardly enterprise he, however, completely failed, as the inhabitants of Valladolid rose upon him and the band of ruffians with whom he entered the town, rescued the Countess from their hands, and drove them without the walls.

Count Molitor, in the mean time, continued the march of the second corps of the French army upon Saragossa, and entered that important city on the 26th of the month. The municipality met him at Malin on the 25th, and acknowledged the authority of Ferdinand the Seventh; whilst Gen. Balasteros retreated with the constitutional forces in the direction of Valencia, leaving some detached parties on the south bank of the Ebro to observe the operations of the French. In the city were found forty-eight pieces of cannon, and a vast quantity of warlike munitions. Along the whole course of his march, Molitor had been received with transports of joy by the inhabitants, and he and his troops entered Saragosa under triumphal arches, prepared by the citizens, in honour of his arrival. The contrast afforded by the reception given at this time to the French, with the sanguinary resist-

ance opposed to them during the war of independence by the inhabitants of this heroic city, is one of those striking events in history, which find their best commentary in the simple narration of facts. Gen. Molitor found himself immediately reinforced by the cavalry division of Dumont; and whilst on the one hand he communicated with Gen. Obert at Llogrona, he found himself on the other in correspondence with the Duke of Cornegliano, by means of a detachment which he pushed on to Fraga.

Whilst this movement was in execution, the Prince de Hohenlohe fixed the head-quarters of his division at Tolosa, and continued to press the siege of St. Sebastian and Pampeluna. Neither of these operations made rapid progress, as the want of heavy cannon was felt, and the absence of the vessels of war expected to assist in the blockade of St. Sebastian, continued to permit facilities to the garrisons, of which the commandant did not fail to avail himself. The garrison of Pampeluna also made several sorties, until a severe check was inflicted by the 6th French regiment of the line, forming part of the brigade of Couchy, and which, being attacked by the Spaniards whilst employed in escorting a convoy with provisions, turned upon the assailants, and completely overthrew them, putting many to the sword, and forcing the remainder to seek safety in a precipitate flight. At this time the garrison of Pampeluna consisted of nearly 4000 men, with provisions for fourteen months.

The important trust of maintaining the communication of the first and second *corps-d'armée* with France, likewise devolved upon His Highness Prince Hohenlohe.

Deputations having also arrived at the head-quarters of the Prince Generalissimo from the inhabitants of Burgos, earnestly soliciting his Royal Highness to detach a force to occupy their city, Gen. Count d'Autichamp was despatched with his division of the first corps, and the cavalry brigades of Larochejaquelin and Vallin, and entered the city without opposition on the 22nd. The liberating army was met at some distance from the city by the inhabitants, with bands of music and white flags, and received with a degree of enthusiasm hardly credible. The constitutional authorities had, as usual, fled at the approach of the liberators. The arrival of the division of Count d'Autichamp was immediately followed by that of Gen. Casté, and the brigade of the King's household cavalry, consisting of the garde du corps and of the cuirassiers of the guards.

As several detached corps of constitutionalists continued upon the Ebro, two brigades, under Gen. Canuel, manœuvred upon that river, in order to threaten any such corps as might attempt to interrupt the communications of the Prince Generalissimo.

The important fortress of Llaredo surrendered to the French, as did that of Iasa, also in Catalonia, to a royalist Spanish division of the army of the Baron d'Erolles.

Whilst these operations were executed, the most inclement weather continued to prevail, but did not in any way abate the ardour and devotion of the French troops.

Morillo, who seemed never to have entered with much zeal into the cause of the Cortes, had in the mean time been named to supersede Gen. Quiroga in the chief command in Galicia, but as yet he did not

advance farther than Valladolid, where he was joined by the Empecinado. Whilst here, he suffered the Portuguese royalists, under the Conde Amaranthe, to pass close to his position, without attempting any thing against them. The Conde was on his march to unite himself to the Spanish royalist division of Quesada, having previously solicited permission of the Duke d'Angoulême to join the French army, which was refused on account of the present position of the relations of the three powers. His opponent Riego had, however, been warned to maintain a respectful distance from the French forces, and taking the hint, he speedily quitted the Spanish territory, and retired within the Portuguese frontiers.

In Catalonia, the Duke of Cornegliano occupied Rosas; Gen. Donadieu, Camperdon; and Gen. Laroche Agmon, Girona. The Spanish Gen. Llobera continued at Olot, and Mina at Vich.

On the 5th of May, the Prince Generalissimo moved his head-quarters to Miranda, and prescribed the route to be taken for an immediate advance upon Madrid. The first corps was divided into two corps, one commanded by his Royal Highness in person, to advance by way of Burgos, Aranda, Buitrago, and Alcovendas. The other commanded by the Duke of Reggio, to march by Palencia, Valladolid, Segovia, Guadarama, and Galapagos. The division of Gen. Obert was at the same time ordered to break up from Llogrona, and march upon the capital by way of Tudela, Taracona, Agrida, Almazan, Parecles, Tadrague, Guadalajara, and Alcala.

The advance of the French army was the signal for the towns of Zamora, Medina, Olmeda, Avila, and others, to rise upon the Constitutional authorities, to overthrow the ridiculous stones or pillars of the Constitution, and to proclaim the authority of Ferdinand the Seventh. It ought, however, to have been stated, that Gen. Bourk having found it necessary to detach from St. Sebastian the brigade of D'Albignac, and a Swiss regiment of the Guard, to reinforce the corps blockading Santona, and as he had to transfer his own head-quarters to Burgos upon the advance of Count d'Autichamp, the blockade of St. Sebastian was confided to Gen. Schoeffer.

On the 4th of May, Sir Robert Wilson, Colonel Light, an officer of the 10th British Hussars, and Mr. Erskine, the grandson of the celebrated Lord Erskine, landed from an English vessel at Vigo in Galicia, and having appeared upon the parade of the militia regiments stationed there, in the uniform of privates, fell into the ranks after Sir Robert had delivered a long speech in Spanish to the soldiery. In this speech Sir Robert dwelt chiefly on the tyranny and despotism of the Allied Sovereigns, although he wore, rather inconsistently, over his militia uniform, various Austrian, Russian, and Prussian orders of knighthood. Of these he was, however, almost immediately afterwards deprived by special decrees of the Sovereigns who had conferred them upon him. Sir Robert and his friends (being all of them Protestants) next made their appearance at mass in the church of San Fernando,—the occasion for which the mass was celebrated being for the repose of the souls of some persons who had been killed in a riot at Cadiz. After being feasted and serenaded for some days and nights longer, they took their departure for Corunna, under a strong escort of cavalry, certainly rather an unusual mode of travelling for

private militia men, and which, it was at the time remarked, contrasted singularly with that adopted by the Prince of Carignan Savoy, the heir to the Sardinian throne, who about the same time arrived at the head-quarters of the Duke d'Angoulême as a volunteer, but who during his journey positively declined the attendance of any military escort whatever.

On the arrival of Sir Robert at Corunna, he was addressed by Gen. Quiroga in a speech of some length, bearing in its style so ludicrous a resemblance to some of the harangues put by Cervantes into the mouth of Don Quixote, as to render its perusal with gravity impossible; but as this speech is intolerably lengthy, and as after the result of the war, and in the present situation of the parties, more detailed allusion to it might be deemed cruel, I shall abstain from transcribing it. Such of my readers as may feel curious upon the subject, will find this speech, and many others connected with Sir Robert Wilson's journey to Spain, faithfully translated in the English newspapers of the time.

Whilst these farcical scenes were enacting in Galicia, others scarcely less dramatic, though perhaps less thoroughly tinctured with the mock heroic, were preparing at Madrid for the exit of some of the Constitutional performers.

As the French forces were now rapidly advancing upon the capital, curiosity became alive with respect to the line of conduct most likely to be adopted by the energetic, perfidious, and subtle Abisbal. It was known that his military means were totally inadequate to resistance, and that he must have recourse to fresh intrigue, to extricate himself from the predicament in which he was placed.

On the 15th of May, accordingly, a letter was published, addressed to him by the Count de Montigo, together with his answer to the same. The first of these documents, which recommended to Abisbal to throw off his allegiance to the Cortes, and to adopt the party of the King, was evidently the result of collusion. In the reply which Abisbal returned to this letter, he pretended to decline going the whole length recommended by Montigo, but declared it to be his opinion, that the Cortes had by their folly ruined Spain, and that it was therefore necessary to dissolve this body, to dismiss the ministers, to recall the King to Madrid, and to come to an understanding with France.

On the next day he published a proclamation indicating the probability which there was, that he might be compelled to evacuate the capital, and intreating the inhabitants to abstain from disorder, and to remain tranquil, until a garrison of the enemy capable of maintaining the ascendency of the laws should occupy the capital. He at the same time declared, that he would punish all attempts at pillage or disorder, as he would not suffer party fury to stain with blood the soil of the capital of the most enlightened nation, or the ambitious and perfidious views of a small number of individuals to compromise the tranquillity of a city distinguished for its patriotism and for its talents.

He afterwards published a sort of lame attempt to withdraw the sentiments contained in his letter to Count Montigo, but in the morning of the 18th, a deputation of his officers waited upon him, accused him of treason to the Cortes, and demanded that he should immediately relinquish the command of the army. Abisbal strenuously denied the charge of treason, and said that he only acted as circum-

stances required for the public good, an assertion in which there was some truth; and at the same time he coolly intimated to the deputation that he had already resigned his command, which had accordingly devolved upon the Marquis Castel de los Rios. After this interview, he ordered dinner, and sent for passports to enable him to proceed, as he pretended, to Seville, but upon his attendants re-entering his apartments, he had disappeared, and although his lameness rendered his personal appearance so remarkable as to have acquired for him the appellation of the "*diable boiteux*," he continued to elude the search which was immediately made for him, and a considerable interval elapsed before he was again heard of.

On the same day Gen. Zayas repaired to the head-quarters of the Prince Generalissimo at Buitrago, for the purpose of arranging with him the terms of a convention for the evacuation of Madrid by the Constitutional troops, and its occupation by the French.

On the 21st of the month, a report having prevailed that the French would that day enter the capital, numbers of the populace flocked out by the gate of Alcala to meet them, decorated with white ribands, and shouting with all their might, "Viva Fernando!" "Vivan los Bourbones!" "Vivan los Franceses!" In their absence, the Royalist chief Bessieres made his appearance with a troop of Lancers at the gate of Alcala, and advanced as far as the Custom-house, where Gen. Zayas met him, and told him that by the convention entered into with the Duke d'Angoulême, none of the Royalist troops could be admitted previously to the arrival of the French, and that he must withdraw. To enforce this command, Zayas had still under his orders about 1200 Constitutionalists, the Marquis Castel de los Rios having the day before withdrawn the remains of Abisbal's army, about 7000 strong, and retired with them in the direction of Estremadura. Bessieres at first refused to retire, and it was not till he was attacked by the troops of Zayas that he quitted the city. The Constitutionalists followed him out by the gate of Alcala, where they met returning the bands of citizens decorated with white ribands, whom they immediately fell upon sword in hand, and caused considerable havoc amongst them. About eighty persons, including many women and children, were killed by this charge of the Constitutional troops, and many more were wounded.

It appeared that Bessieres, who had been long hovering about the city, had heard of the departure of Castel de los Rios, and the greater portion of the army, but that he was ignorant of any convention having been entered into with the Duke d'Angoulême, and desirous of the *éclat* which he imagined would attend his making himself master of the capital, before its occupation by the French, he had resolved upon the untoward attempt which we have mentioned,—intelligence of which was immediately despatched by Zayas to his Royal Highness. Colonel de La Chasse Visigny, was accordingly commanded by the Prince to return with the Spanish messenger to Madrid, and to announce that the vanguard of the corps under his personal command, and a brigade of the division of Gen. Obert, amounting in all to about 4000 men, would enter the city at five o'clock in the morning of the 23rd, under the command of Gen. de Foissac.

The entrance of these troops, which took place punctually at the time mentioned, was the signal for the populace to rise and throw

down the stone of the constitution, which they smashed piecemeal, and replaced it by a portrait of the King. They then hastened to the hall of the Cortes, into which they broke, destroying the chandeliers, benches, and statues; whilst on the outside they threw from the niches the statues, and otherwise defaced the building. From the library of the Cortes they next took the records, acts, and diaries of that body, and threw them into a bonfire, where they were speedily consumed. At ten o'clock the preparations for the reception of the Duke d'Angoulême were nearly completed, and nearly the whole of the buildings in the quarter of the town through which he was to pass, were hung with tapestry and silk. About this hour the populace proceeded to attack the houses of some of the leading constitutionalists, and at twelve o'clock the portrait of Riego was burned at the Plaza Mayor, by the hands of the common hangman; and there is no saying to what sad excesses the popular violence (always to be dreaded) might have led, had not large bodies of the French troops entered the city and restored the supremacy of the laws.

The provisional junta of government having also arrived, declared the authorities left by the Cortes displaced, and named others in their stead, and further declared all the acts of the Constitutional Government since the time of its establishment null and void. This proclamation bore the signatures of Señores Eguino, Erra, and Calderon.

In the evening the city was brilliantly illuminated, and at nine o'clock of the morning of the next day, the 24th, the Duke d'Angoulême made his public entry, under a triumphal arch, placed at the gate of the Recoletos, and passing along the Prada through an immense crowd of people and troops, he alighted at the house of the Duke of Villa Hermosa. Here the troops, which had entered Madrid with his Royal Highness, defiled before him, and the municipality waited upon him.

The spectacle must have been a striking one to the Spaniards, thus to see their capital occupied by a Prince, the near relation of their King, in defiance of the threats of anarchists and revolutionists, at the head of an army no less distinguished for courage and discipline than for its numbers. Than its appearance, nothing could be more brilliant; and in contemplating its varied costume, associations allied with the former wars and chivalry of their country and of France, must have presented themselves to the minds of the more educated spectators. The presence of the Gardes du corps, consisting of the youth of the first families of France and Europe, devoting themselves to the toil and dangers of the private soldier, bespoke that those feelings of chivalrous devotion, which rendered attendance upon the person of their legitimate Prince, and the privilege of bearing arms, to be considered a recompense sufficient for the endurance of every privation, still continued to animate a portion of society,—whilst in the cuirassiers of the guard, cased in mail and mounted on horses of gigantic strength, the Spaniard might almost conceive that he beheld the prototype of those ancient warriors under whose thundering charge the soil of the Peninsula had of old resounded, and before whom the Moorish chivalry quailed. Nor was the scarlet uniform of the Swiss less calculated to awaken recollections of unequalled loyalty, than to recall to remembrance other

warriors similarly habited, to whose heroic valour "all the fields of Spain" had borne witness.

On the same day decrees were issued, re-establishing the Councils of Castile and of the Indies, and six of the old councillors of each were chosen for the purpose of electing a regency to act in behalf of the King during his captivity.

The regents named by these persons, were the Dukes del Infantado, and Montemar, of whom the first was declared president,—the Bishop of Osuna, and Don Antonio Gomez Calderon.

The first-named of these individuals was a person possessed of the highest character and reputation,—a grandee of the first class; he was also one of the wealthiest subjects of Spain. He had received his education in France, and in the war sustained in 1793 by Spain, in Catalonia, against the French republicans, he took an active part. In 1807 he was accused by Godoy, Prince of Peace, of conspiring with Ferdinand the Seventh, then Prince of Asturias, to overthrow his authority. He accompanied Ferdinand to Bayonne, and upon returning to Spain he had a command in the army of the patriots. In 1811 he came as ambassador to London, and upon the return of Ferdinand in 1814, he was rewarded for having often risked not only his fortune, but his life in his master's service, by being named President of the Council of Castile. When the Cortes regained their authority they did not forget this, and he was exiled from his attendance at court without even the form of a trial being allowed him. The other members of the regency were equally known for the integrity of their sentiments, although their rank was less distinguished than the Duke's.

Previous to his entering the capital, the Generalissimo had on the 23rd put forth the following proclamation:—

"Spaniards! Before the French army passed the Pyrenees, I declared to your generous nation, that France was not at war with it. I announced to it that we came as friends to aid it in restoring the altars, delivering the King, and re-establishing in its bosom justice, order, and peace. I promised respect to property, safety to persons, and protection to the peaceable. Spain gave credit to my word. The provinces I have passed through have received the French soldiers as brethren; and the public voice will have told you whether they have justified this reception, and whether I have kept my engagement.

"Spaniards,—If your King were still in his capital, the noble mission that the King my uncle has confided to me, and that you are acquainted with in all its parts, would be nearly accomplished. I should have only, after having restored the monarch to liberty, to call his paternal solicitude to the evils his people have suffered, to the necessity they have of repose for the present, and security for the future.

"The absence of his Majesty imposes other duties upon me. The command of the army belongs to me, but whatever may be the bonds which attach me to your King, which unite France to Spain, the provinces delivered by our troops cannot, and ought not to be governed by foreigners.

"From the frontiers, to the gates of Madrid, their administration has been confided provisionally to honourable Spaniards, whose devotion and fidelity are known to his Majesty, and who have acquired in these difficult circumstances new claims to his gratitude, and the esteem of the nation.

"The moment is come for establishing in a solemn, and stable manner, a Regency to govern the country, to organize a regular army, and concert with me in the means of consummating our great work, the deliverance of your King. This establishment presents serious difficulties, which frankness and

loyalty do not permit us to dissimulate, but which necessity must conquer. His Majesty's choice cannot be known; and it is not possible, without painfully prolonging the woes which press on the King and the nation, to call on the provinces to concur in it.

"In this difficult conjuncture, and for which the past offers no precedent to follow, I thought the properest measure, and the most national, and the most agreeable to the King, was to convoke the ancient Supreme Council of Castile, and the Supreme Council of the Indies, whose high and various attributes embrace the kingdom and the foreign possessions, and to confine to those great bodies (independent of their elevation and the political position of those who compose them) the care of designating themselves the members of the Regency. I have consequently convoked the Councils, who will make their choice known to me.

"The persons honoured with their suffrages will exercise the necessary authority, until the wished-for day, when your King, happy and free, can occupy himself with the consolidation of his throne, and securing in his turn the happiness of his subjects.

"Spaniards!—take the word of a Bourbon for it,—the beneficent monarch who has sent me to you, will never separate in his mind vows for the liberty of a King of his blood, and the just hopes of a great and generous nation, the ally and friend of France!"

"By his Royal Highness the Prince Generalissimo,

"Louis Antoine.

"The Councillor of State, Civil Commissary of his most Christian Majesty,

"De Martignac.

"At the Head-quarters of Alcovendas, May 23rd, 1823."

The grandees of Spain, present in the capital at the time of the entrance of the Duke d'Angoulême, amounting in number to about fifty, immediately waited upon him with an address, expressive of their continued loyalty to their King, their abhorrence of the principles and conduct of those who held him in durance, and their regret, that their accompanying his Majesty in his exile could only have had the effect of compromising the principles of legitimacy, and the safety of the royal person;—they however congratulated themselves, and the faithful Spanish nation, that the triumphant arrival amongst them of his Royal Highness, and the thousands of brave men under his command, and the guarantee of his royal word, justified them in the hope of soon seeing their King restored to liberty, and the return of order, peace, and justice, public morals, a holy religion, and the salutary empire of the laws.

The list of signatures contained the names of the first character and importance in Spain, including those of the Dukes of Infantado, Berwick and Alva, Berwick and Leria, San Fernando, Benevento, &c.

To this address his Royal Highness replied in a letter to the Duke of San Fernando, in which he again renewed his protestations, that his object in coming to Spain, in the name of the King his sovereign and uncle, was only to restore peace to the country, to reconcile her to the powers of Europe, and, in breaking the fetters of the King, to enable him to assure in a stable manner the happiness of the nation.

On the 29th of the month the regency named the following individuals Ministers of State:—Don Vergas Laguna, formerly ambassador at Rome, Minister for Foreign Affairs; Don Garcia de la Torre, Minister of Justice; the Marshal San Trean, Minister at War; Señor Salazar, Minister of Marine; Señor Erro, Minister of Finance; Señor Aruares, Minister of the Interior.

RECOLLECTIONS OF A SEA LIFE.*

BY A MIDSHIPMAN OF THE LAST CENTURY.

Raising the bright constellations of the Southern Cross and the Centaur, we sailed on among our flying-fish and their enemies, until we arrived in those sluggish latitudes, where the more lazy and gluttonous shark frequently shows himself, basking in the glaring sun, or, enlivened by the splashing of an equatorial shower, sails with his dorsal-fin above the surface; and, by the frequent shifting of his course, seems to be in chase of the large drops as they fall. My excellent friend, Capt. Basil Hall, has conveyed to his readers a most vivid picture of the interest created in a ship by catching and dissecting one of these monsters. He has not mentioned one circumstance, however, that attended the first capture of this kind in His Majesty's Ship B——. This is the celerity with which the prize was cut up into four-pound pieces; those master spirits who took the lead, having first secured a piece of the tail for their own mess, because it was furthest from the stomach.

The catching of the first shark makes a capital incident in a voyage; but when your station is among them, it would be sorely at variance with the cleanliness of a man-of-war, to admit on board all that could be caught.

I remember one fine calm forenoon lying in Batavia roads, the burning sun vertical at noon, the thermometer about 100 in the coolest shade. The ordinary occupations of the men had been suspended to preserve them from the dangerous effects of exposure to the sun; and they were seated, or lying down, near the port-holes, to be in the shade, and to catch any air of wind that the motion of the ship might create. The reflecting surface of the water, like a polished mirror, no where ruffled by the slightest breeze, was studded all round as far as the eye could reach, with the fins of sharks, which were lolling their lazy way, as they enjoyed *the fine sunny day*. The sport which this display of shark-fins promised, was too tempting to be withstood by the middies, who, with a young marine officer at their head, set to work, baited the shark-hook, and attached a good strong rope to it; so that they did not require to use much ceremony when the shark was hooked, however large he might be. It was not admissible in such a case to add the rank smell from the steam of murdered sharks to the annoyance already suffered from the heat, so that our young sportsmen, having hooked their victim, were obliged to be contented with pulling him up to the boat's david (one of the projecting beams at the stern, used for hoisting a boat up to). When the shark was there, they first cut open his belly, then with a sharp hatchet, released his jaw from the hook that held him, and thus let him into the water again. The instant he fell, he was attacked by those nearest to him. The more distant followed, and soon all the fins that could be seen, sailed towards that centre, and marked the water with numerous lines, in the manner of converging rays, while the devoted object of this movement was torn to pieces by his merciless brethren. Encouraged by their success,

* Continued from page 335.

the youngsters repeated the experiment, and found its result the same, until the water under the stern was crowded with sharks, as if they had been a shoal of some gregarious fish; but they were plunging, and striving, and tearing their distressed brother, with an avidity that rivalled the zest with which their *fellow-creatures* of the human race are prone to distress such beings of their species as possess not the power of resistance. The parallel has often occurred to me when I have seen a swarm of boys following a helpless maniac, and harassing him with more devilry, because with more ingenuity than their prototypes in the water.

The calm, hot, and rainy weather, in which the European is stewed while making his passage into the southern hemisphere, is a transition from the roasting of the clearer tropical sun, almost as agreeable as that from the frying-pan to the fire.

This weather occupies a belt of varying breadth, from four to eight degrees of latitude, depending upon the season, and also upon the vicinity of the coast of Africa, near to which it is broader than more towards the middle of the Atlantic.

It is always, however, on the north side of the equinoctial line; and geographical grammars, as they are called, misinform the world when they state, that the north-east trade wind prevails from the line to the tropic of Cancer; and the south-east trade from the line to the tropic of Capricorn. On the contrary, I have known the north-east trade wind to be lost in the thirteenth degree of north latitude; and the south-east trade to be met in the seventh degree of north latitude, prevailing at first much from the southward, but afterwards drawing more round to the east, until it had reached the S.E. by E. and E.S.E. from which points it continued to blow until we lost it, and took up the variable winds and heavy westerly gales of the Southern Ocean. The southern limit of the belt of calm weather is about the equinoctial line, when this belt is in its southern station, the sun having then a high southerly declination.

The fact of this calm weather lying between the trades being always to the north of the equator, probably arises from the conformation of the western coast of Africa, since, a little to the north of that line, this coast recedes to the direct west, about twenty degrees of longitude, and leaves an open ocean opposite to the southern latitudes, while the neighbourhood of the coast influences the winds to the north.

Having passed this troublesome belt, we met with a south-east trade, which, after sundry gentle, but unsuccessful efforts, at last settled in a moderate steady breeze. A portion of our convoy, five sail, were China ships. Our business was to escort them to China, and to see the other part of the fleet only as far as their course lay on that route, and beyond the numerous cruisers of the enemy which were nearer home. We had started late in the season for making the direct passage up the China sea, and had, therefore, the prospect of what is called the eastern passage before us, a much longer round. To provide for this, it became necessary to stop at some port for water and refreshments for the crew.

The Cape of Good Hope, on the one hand, lay nearly in our track, and Rio Janeiro, on the other, was but little out of the line which the south-east trade forces ships to make in crossing it. This trade is a

directly foul wind, but its limits must be crossed, in order to get into the latitude of the rattling westerly gales, that will hurl you along to the eastward afterwards.

The belt of latitude which this south-east wind occupies, is better crossed by not keeping your ship close to the wind: for although she thus looks up more to the southward, yet, by making less distance and more lee-way, she may make less southing: besides, the more you are to the westward, the more easterly, and, therefore, the less unfavourable will this wind be in a given latitude. There are limits to this rule, however, which will vary with circumstances. But if we suppose a ship to get this trade when she is to the westward of the twentieth degree of longitude, *and not so far west as to be in danger of falling to leeward of Cape St. Roque,* I should think it a good mode for discovering the best course to steer, to try your ship at six points, six and a half, and seven points from the wind; and, if it be from the eastward of south-east, say seven and a half or eight points.

Try her rate of sailing on these points, and set off the increasing distance with the more leewardly course, making proper allowance for the leeway; then whichever point of sailing gives the most southing, that is the point to steer upon, without regard to how much or how little westing she may make; for the westing, though a loss of ground, is soon made up for when you get out of the trade wind, and the great object ought therefore to be, to cross its limits as quick as possible.

We had nothing to do with this nice point. Permission being given to the ships bound for India to part company, we left them to make the best of it, and as Rio Janeiro lay under our lee, we steered away with our five Chinamen a point or two more to leeward, and thus gradually parted company with them. A general diffusion of joy was spread through the ship at this movement. Rio Janeiro was then a port but little frequented by British ships. Though belonging to our friends, the Portuguese, its Government partook of the jealousy with which the blind avidity of the Spaniards had endeavoured to monopolise the riches of South America.

But few of our seamen, therefore, had visited this port, and none of the officers. The few buccaneers, or their successors, (men who had been engaged in what was called the forced trade,) who happened to be on board, became of great consequence in the ship by the information they were able to give, scanty though it was. Some of the more intelligent were even consulted by the captain before he resolved to bear up for Rio Janeiro, and their accounts stimulated the interest which attends the anticipation of visiting unknown regions; but their glowing descriptions fell far short of the extraordinary beauty which distinguishes this paradise, of which neither pen nor pencil, nor even the more animated powers of relation *viva voce,* can give an idea adequate to the reality. Our anticipations were brightened by the mystery which was associated with conjecture in the mind of a European, on the eve of becoming acquainted with this unknown land. But some events were to intervene before our impatience was gratified, the most fearful of which was a narrow escape from a projected journey to the moon. We had likewise a successful encounter with an enemy's squadron.

While these prospects enlivened the inmates of the midshipman's berth, there was one unhappy exception. One poor young man had drunk too deeply of the fascination referred to in my last paper during our long retention in harbour. He had not, like others of his messmates, been contented with sipping honey from the edge of the cup; but, like the unwise bee, he had plunged overhead, and rendered himself incapable of any vigorous or manly exertion to free himself from the evil that involved him. He was most thoroughly and irrecoverably in love, and what was much worse both for himself and the object of his attachment, he had sworn eternal constancy, and formed one of those hopeless engagements to marry when his means should permit, which become more hopeless by the entanglement preventing the power of acquiring those means. He was a young man of mild and gentlemanly manners, and before this time, of a lively disposition. His dejection on leaving England was the subject of many a rally from his gayer messmates; but as we increased our distance from the spot to which all his thoughts were riveted, his despondency became more overwhelming, and drew pity from the most reckless of his companions. These circumstances were but little known to the Captain and the superior officers, until the young man got so bad that he became unable to perform the duties of his station. I say unable, for his case was actually disease in the common acceptation of that word. The surgeon pronounced it to be such under the name of hypochondriasis, which sounded very learnedly to us. Before this, our poor young friend got into many scrapes on the subject of his duties, and bore sundry *wiggings* on that score which did no good; but after his complaint got a name he became privileged, was never called upon, and spent his days, and, I believe, his nights too, in reading poetry and novels, for he could not sleep. At last he grew incapable even of these occupations, and used to wander from one part of the ship to another more like a ghost than a living being, until he fancied that he was going to die, and accordingly took to his bed, where he seemed in a fair way of realizing his expectation. Our surgeon, a very good fellow, wherever he may be now, (his name was Williams,) came down to attend him; but instead of giving him a passport to the other world, insisted upon his going up to the wardroom to dinner. This was accomplished with some difficulty; partly by persuasion and partly by force, he was carried up and seated at the wardroom table. There the change of scene and some lively conversation which the Surgeon and other officers addressed to him, for the express purpose of driving the blue devils out of him, made him so far forget his sorrows that he held up his head and took his dinner like the rest; and after drinking a glass or two of good wine, a fiddler, who was in waiting, being introduced and striking up a merry tune, our poor hypochondriac, instead of dying, jumped up and danced most heartily.

This susceptibility, however, was but another proof of his disease, and he soon relapsed into his former despair, in which state he remained until it was announced to him that he should return to England by the first opportunity.

While we went on our way to Rio Janeiro, some of the ships that left us were to touch at the Cape of Good Hope; and into one of these our poor messmate was put, to find his way home to England by

that route; and I verily believe it was this joyful change in his views that prevented him from dying at this time. On our homeward-bound voyage, we heard at St. Helena, that he had been unable to get a passage from the Cape to England before his means of subsistence were exhausted, and that he had endeavoured to support himself by setting up a school; but had failed in this also. I have never heard of him since.

The gentle commencement of the south-east trade had, as yet, hardly assured us of its existence, when we were threatened with another calm; but the light airs of wind, when they came, arose from the true quarter, and we had no rain. The horizon was tolerably clear all around—the look-out-man at the mast-head called out, "A strange sail on the larboard bow—and another on the larboard bow—and another—and another"—until we fancied that we had fallen in with some large fleet. "Young gentlemen, away up, and see what these ships are." In half a minute there was a midshipman at each mast-head. I happened to go to the fore-topmast-head, and got into the top-gallant rigging beside the man who was seated on the yard. "Well, where are they?"—"I can't see any of them now, Sir. There, there, Sir." I applied the little glass that I had brought up to my eye, and saw her vanish into thin air. "There is another, Sir." I watched her motions, and observed her to vanish in the same way. I now recollected having seen whales blow in the gulf of St. Lawrence, and it struck me that these shiplike apparitions could be nothing but the columns of spray sent up by the blowing of whales. I hailed the deck to say so. As they came nearer we ascertained them to be a shoal of these creatures of the spermaceti kind. Two little South Sea whalers had continued to accompany us along with the five Chinamen when we parted from the rest of our convoy. They ventured to ask permission to hoist out their boats; so up went their signal to that effect, and our affirmative flag granting the permission, the boats were soon despatched. We would gladly have accompanied them, but we were obliged to content ourselves with mounting the rigging and watching their motions.

If any sport of the sea may bear an analogy to fox-hunting, the catching of whales can alone be compared to that prince of all land-sports the boar-hunt, in which success must depend wholly on the energy and dexterity of the hunter, and not on his hounds.

The boats were engaged for some time in the endeavour to get near enough to their game, each armed with their harpoons attached to lines of 120 fathoms long, with the addition of a spare line in the boat. These lines, made of the choicest hemp, are carefully laid up, very limber and strong, and about the thickness of one's finger, an inch and quarter in circumference. Besides the harpoons, each boat was also armed with *lances*. These are harpoons without barbs, of which we shall presently see the use. One of the boats succeeded in harpooning a whale. The attempts to hold him fast with the strong small line, would have been equally futile and fatal to those in the boat who should venture it; accordingly, he was allowed at first to have his full swing, and dashed away with forty or fifty fathoms of the line. Great care must be taken to keep this line perfectly clear for running, and a sharp hatchet is always ready in the bow to cut it on the instant

should it catch anything to stop it. This precaution is necessary for the safety of the boat; for if it were neglected in such a case, the whale would soon get her under water, where, being in his own element, he would have the advantage of his assailants. When the whale has made his first dash off, and the length of the line run out prevents his motions from affecting the boat so suddenly as when it was short, the bowman catches a turn with the line round a timber-head which stands erect in the bow of the boat for that purpose; the steersman having first with his *oar** turned the boat's stern, so that her head is directed towards the course of the whale.

The bowman now begins to check the running of the line round the timber-head, and veering it out more and more slowly, makes the boat's motion partake of that of the whale, and at last holds the rope fast. The whale has now to tow the boat with eighty or a hundred fathoms of line after him. At first he flies away with her and makes her run at a great rate, and care must now be exerted by the bowman not to hold him too fast, and by the steersman to direct the boat towards him; by degrees a tow of this kind becomes tiresome even to a whale, and his speed is slackened.

I ought to have mentioned, that as soon as one boat had harpooned her whale, all the others ceased to pursue their own sport, and followed that boat with which the whale had run away; and when he had abated his speed so that they could come up with him, the lances, or barbless harpoons, came into use. Each boat rowed up to him, and watching their opportunity, threw their lances into him; being easily withdrawn, they were ready to be thrown again with fatal effect. When this stage of the process had commenced, the poor animal was soon despatched.

Some of the boats endeavoured to tow him to one of the ships, but the others, with more success, and with the assistance of a light breeze, towed the ship to him. He was hauled alongside and secured there. His head was now opened, and the *head-matter*, which is the sperm-aceti, (in the brain, I believe,) was soon baled out. The next operation was to strip off the blubber, which lies outside of the flesh like the fat of a hog. The men who were employed for this purpose upon the body of the whale, wore boots with long spikes in them, to keep them from slipping. They made an incision in the direction of the whale's length, from the gills downward, about eighteen inches long, and to the depth of the blubber, until they reached the surface of the flesh or *crang*. From the ends of this incision they commenced the cutting of two other lines, parallel to each other but oblique to the direct round of the whale, in such a way, that, when continued, they formed a spiral round his body that terminated at his tail, and freeing from the crang with their knives the blubber that lay between the commencement of these spiral lines, they attached to it the tackle, which was now overhauled down to them from the main-yard of the ship. When the tackle was fastened to this end of the blubber, it was pulled up on board, while the men on the whale continued to cut the spiral lines, and to free the blubber from the crang between them, so that the end of it ascended towards the mainyard while the body of

* A rudder affects the course of a vessel only when she has way through the water; but it is required to alter the direction of a whale-boat when she has no way. She is therefore steered with an oar.

the whole revolved in the water, and the men with their spiked boots continued to march to that part of him which came uppermost, as if they had been on the outside of the treadmill-wheel, still cutting this spiral line of blubber as they went round. When the tackle came a-block, that is, when the end of the line of the blubber had nearly reached the main yard, it was cut off close to the whale, and the lower end of it being pulled on board, the whole piece was lowered into the ship and the tackle overhauled again for the next, until the poor whale was completely stripped of blubber down to his tail, after which he was left a prey to the sharks. When these busy operations were over, the master of the whaler sent us a young whale which had been taken out of the old one. It was about the size of a large cod-fish.

We fell in with the squadron of French frigates on the 4th of August, and our projected journey to the moon was interrupted three or four days before that event. It must, therefore, have been about the 1st of August of that year which completed the century. By the way, whether the year 1800 began or ended the century was a question upon which some ink was shed. After this, what is there that may not be made a subject of dispute? On the 1st of August, then, while the farmer of England was anxiously watching the progress of his ripening crops, we were ploughing our way towards Rio Janeiro, and were fairly advanced into the heart of the trade wind, with Cape Frio under our lee, and the wind about two points abaft the beam.

We had a fine day's run, the glare from a hot sun and bright sky had been tempered by a fine breeze, but we were not sorry to see them give place to the placid light of the moon and the sparkling of the stars in their dark blue vault, now variegated by the Magellan clouds and the milky way. The wind, though moderate, was enough to keep all the sails asleep, that is, it prevented their flapping idly against the mast, and but slightly ruffled the surface of the water. There was but little of undulatory motion called ground-swell, of which there is always some in the open sea arising from distant causes, so that our ship appeared almost to stand still upon the ocean, though she was sliding onwards at the rate of four miles an hour, which could be perceived by the ear of an experienced mariner as he leaned over the hammock-rails to enjoy the refreshing sound of the splashing from her bows. The officer of the short watch, from six to eight, whose charge might have been solitary enough during a snowy night in the North Sea, was not left alone. He had the captain and the first-lieutenant to keep him company: every body was on deck. Some of the officers on the poop, and some on the weather gangway, where they were at liberty to lounge free from the sacred quarter-deck. The old North Sea master with a wooden sextant, and the young astronomical midshipmen with metal ones, were busily engaged in shooting the moon. Eight o'clock came; the striking of eight bells and calling the watch warned those who had to turn out at twelve that it was time for them to retire if they meant to have any sleep. I happened to be among that number, and long before the harmony of the watch on deck was disturbed by sounds of alarm, I was in my hammock in a profound sleep, earned from having been up from four on the previous morning. The first watch was set, and, as I said, those who had to keep the other night watches now retired; but many of the *idlers* still remained

on deck to enjoy the fine evening, or to listen to the stories of Darby Malony or Patrick Finnegan.

These were two Irishmen who had the faculty of telling quaint stories in so droll a way as to keep the whole ship's company in a roar of laughter. At first they were both accidentally placed in the starboard watch, and in a fine evening like that described, they used to take their seat on the main-deck, close by the break of the quarter-deck, and each to relieve the other by taking up the tale as his neighbour got out of breath; but the listening watch had no respite from their fits of laughter. The larboard watch had complained with some reason of this unfair monopoly of the fun, so Darby Malony and Patrick Finnegan were separated, one remaining in the starboard and the other being turned over to the larboard watch; so that there was always one of them on deck. Some of the idlers, then, remained up to hear these funny stories, or to enjoy their walk on the forecastle. *Idlers* is the name given to all officers or men on board a man-of-war who keep no watch. It is sometimes an appropriate name for such officers, but it is by no means so for the men who receive it. They consist of the servants of the officers, and the cooks of both officers and men; also such artificers as are employed in their respective occupations during the whole day. In addition to the above proper duties, however, these idlers are frequently called up when any evolution is to be performed which requires the watch upon deck to be strengthened, in order to avoid disturbing the watch below. In the list of idlers the ship's barber should not be forgotten, as he is one of the heroes in the event which put an abrupt termination to the enjoyments of this fine evening. He does not deserve the name of idler any more than the rest, if we consider that he has five hundred men to shave. He had finished his day's work, and having walked the forecastle with the sailors till he had almost fancied himself into one, and to be ready with them for any exploit of daring, about half-past nine o'clock he went below for the purpose of going to his hammock, when his courage met with a severe test.

The passage into the magazine is on the orlop-deck (that which is below the lower gun-deck). This passage is increased by strong bulk-heads, or partitions, which divide it from the store-rooms, containing rope, &c. &c. These store-rooms, and the passage leading to them, are also encased in strong bulk-heads, and the keys of the whole are kept in the first-lieutenant's cabin. Besides this, the magazine passage has three doors. There is one to be unlocked on entering from the passage of the store-rooms to the outer magazine passage; another strong door admits you to the inner passage; and, lastly, the magazine-door opens to a *scuttle*, or square hole in the deck, which allows you to descend to the magazine, so that is not easily assailed by this route. But over the inner passage, there is a scuttle in the lower gun-deck, for the purpose of conveying down the barrels of powder when they are received on board. The scuttle on the lower gun-deck is covered by a trap hatch. This is braced by a thick iron-bar. The end of the bar has a clamp that, fitting over a staple, is secured by a padlock. It happened that the barber's hammock was situated near this scuttle, and about half-past nine he descended the fore-hatchway ladder, singing with a light heart, and bending under the hammocks, made his way towards his own. When he got before the bits, his

attention was arrested by some one breathing hard close to him. He halted, and by the distant glimmer from the lantern of the master-at-arms perceived a figure bent down, and engaged in some violent exertion at the magazine scuttle. Presently the poor barber heard the clinking of an iron crow-bar, as the incendiary succeeded in drawing the staple which secured it, and felt himself confronted with the desperado, who now raised himself. Neither spoke. The poor barber was riveted to the spot, and his hair stood on end. He heard the opening of a clasped knife. A burst of imprecation from the maniac followed. This seemed to unfetter the limbs of the barber, who now bounded along the deck upon his hands and feet under the hammocks. The light from the lantern of the master-at-arms had vanished, by his going up to report that all was well below, and the barber performed a complete round of the deck in this manner, believing the knife to be so close at his back that he could not turn aside to ascend the ladder without exposing himself to be stabbed. At last he bolted up the main hatchway, and arrived breathless on the quarter-deck; but being more occupied with the idea of the madman at his heels, than with his attempt to get at the magazine, some time was lost before he could collect himself sufficiently to stammer out something about "going to blow the ship up," and "the fore magazine scuttle." The officer and midshipman of the watch, the day-mate, who had not yet left the deck, indeed every person on deck, left the ship to take care of herself, and darted to the fore part of the lower-deck. The hammocks on their way were soon untenanted by the alarm, and all crowded round the party from the quarter-deck, who were the first to arrive on the spot where the magazine scuttle stood open. Those who knew that about three hundred pounds of powder in cartridges for present use, was kept in the magazine passage, could now perceive that the ship was already in the power of the incendiary. With method in his madness, if such it was, he had placed one of the men's clothes-bags in such a manner as to keep a chink of the scuttle open to admit air when he pulled it to after him in his descent. He was now trying the strength of his crow-bar at the magazine-door; but had he known of the present-use powder, where he already was, we should have been by this time on our aërial journey. Luckily he did not, and his further attempt on the magazine-door was interrupted by the scuttle being thrown open. He left his occupation, and presenting his crow-bar, declared that the first who should attempt to descend was a dead man. This was answered by the day-mate jumping down, followed by the captain of the forecastle and others, near to the scuttle, which would admit but one at a time. The day-mate received a wound in his thigh from the crow-bar, but the villain was instantly secured and dragged upon deck. Besides his crow-bar and knife, a steel file and a gun-flint were found upon him.

Before this occurrence, he had had the character of a quiet, inoffensive man, and had never been flogged; but his messmates said that there had been a great change in his temper within a few days. He admitted his intention of blowing up the ship, and assigned as a reason, that some of his messmates had offended him; but the fellow got sulky, and would say no more.

THE VOYAGE OF HANNO.

" Si quid novisti rectius istis,
Candidus imperti; si non, his utere mecum."

THE " Periplus Hannonis " is decidedly one of the most curious of all the documents transmitted to us by antiquity, and cannot but be considered as an interesting monument of Carthaginian skill in naval affairs. It seems that, at a very early period of history, the Punic government fitted out two expeditions at the public expense, with the double object of discovery and colonization. Himilco was despatched along the shores of Western Europe with the one, and Hanno (probably the same who first tamed the lion) along the coast of Africa with the other. Of the former fleet the recorded vestigia are extremely slight, though Festus Avienus intimates having seen the original journals,—but the progress of the latter has been preserved in the document before us; and as this inestimable relic has been very unreasonably attacked, we feel it a duty, after a patient examination of its style and bearing, together with some personal knowledge of the localities described, to add our humble vote towards the establishment of its authenticity. With this end in view, we will first submit a translation of it from the Greek text of Campomanes, which we believe was copied from that in Froben's Basil edition, of 1533, and which is deemed to be either a version, or an abstract of the report which Hanno deposited in the temple of Saturn, on his return to Carthage.

" It seemed fit to the Carthaginians that Hanno should take a voyage without the Pillars of Hercules, and found Liby-Phœnician cities; and he sailed, having the command of sixty vessels with fifty rowers each, and a complement of men and women to the number of 30,000, with corn, and every other equipment.

" When, having put off for sea, we passed the Pillars, and had sailed a voyage of two days, we established the first city, which we named Thumiaterion. A great plain lay beneath it.

" And then having put off to westward we came to a cape in Libya, named Soloeis, thickly planted with trees. There having built a temple to Neptune, we advanced towards the rising sun half-a-day's voyage, until we arrived at a lake situated at no great distance from the sea, abounding in many and large reeds. But there were here both elephants, and many other wild animals feeding.

" Having passed by the lake as far as a day's run, we tarried in (*or peopled?*) cities near the sea, called Karicon-Teichos, and Tytta, and Acra, and Melitta, and Arambys.

" Having set off from thence, we came to a great river, the Lixus, flowing from Libya. Near it the Lixitæ, a Nomadic race of shepherds, fed their cattle, with whom we remained some time, being on good terms with them. But up the country dwelt the Æthiopians, an inhospitable race, inhabiting a wild country, divided by lofty mountains, from which they say the Lixus flows. And around these mountains dwelt the Troglodytes, men differing in form (*sc. from the other Libyans,*) who were said by the Lixitæ to be swifter than horses in running.

" Having received interpreters from the Lixitæ, we sailed two days by the desert to the South, but from thence a course of one day to the

East. There we found, in the recess of a certain bay, a small island having a circumference of five stadia, which we colonized, having called it Kernè. We conjectured that this island from the Periplus lay over against Carthage: for the run from Carthage to the Straits, and thence to Kernè, was equidistant *.

" We arrived thence at a lake, having sailed through a certain large river, the Chretè: but this lake had three islands, larger than Kernè. From which, having completed a day's sail, we came to the extremity of the lake, over which were extended very high mountains, inhabited by savages clothed in the skins of wild beasts, who, throwing stones, beat us off, and prevented our disembarking. Sailing from thence we came to another river, large and wide, full of crocodiles and hippopotami. Returning from which we came back to Kernè.

" Thence we sailed twelve days to the South, coasting along the lands, all of which the Æthiopians inhabit, who fled from us, and would not wait our arrival, but spoke a language unintelligible even to the Lixitæ who accompanied us. On the following day we anchored near high mountains covered with trees. But the wood of some trees was fragrant, and of various kinds.

" Having sailed round these two days, we found ourselves in an open gulf of the sea unmeasurable; on the other side of which, contiguous to the land, there was a plain, whence, during the night, we beheld fire rising from every side at intervals—sometimes more, sometimes less.

" Having taken in water there, we sailed thenceforward five days along shore, until we came to a great bay, which our interpreters said was called the Western Horn. In this there was a large island, and in the island a lake, resembling a sea; but in this, another island, on which having disembarked, we saw nothing during the day except wood, but in the night many fires burning; and we heard the sound of pipes, and the noise of cymbals and drums, and an immense clamour. Fear then seized us, and the seers recommended our leaving the island.

" Having quickly sailed away, we passed by a country in one continued blaze of burning frankincense; but full streams of fire, issuing from it, fell into the sea. The land was inaccessible, on account of the heat. We sailed thence in all haste, terrified; but having been wafted four days, at night we beheld a land full of flames; but in the middle there was a high blaze, greater than the others, touching, as it seemed, the very stars. This by day appeared to be a high mountain, called the Chariot of the Gods.

" On the third day, having sailed past these streams of fire, we arrived at a bay called the Southern Horn; but in the recess there was an island resembling the former, having a lake, and in this another island, full of savage men, but there were many more females, hairy all over, whom the interpreters called Gorillæ.

" Pursuing the males, we were not able to catch them, but all made their escape, nimbly climbing precipices, and defending themselves against their pursuers: but we flayed three women, who bit and tore those who led them away, and their skins we carried to Carthage; for we extended our voyage no further, owing to a failure of provisions."

* κατ' ἰνθὺ (or κατὰ ἰνθὺ) might be rendered "in the latitude of," but that the relative positions of Kernè and Carthage will not admit of it.

Such is the Periplus, over which irrational scepticism,—a mental obtuseness, begot by pedantry upon weakness,—would cast its blighting shadows. Two of the most remarkable of the scholastic *genus* were Dodwell and Bryant, the last of whom disbelieved everything, in order that every one might believe in him. The former has started doubts as to the authenticity of this voyage, which do more credit to his learning than to his judgment. With beetling brow and classical pomp he rambles (we had nearly written flounders) amongst Gorgons and Hesperides, and lugs in Phorcyn, and Athenæus, and Palæphates, and other crabbed elders, to convict "the impostor under the name of Hanno;" and, adhering to the least amiable part of Strabo's character, condemns the voyage of Nearchus with equal precipitancy. Dodwell, indeed, was paradoxical by vocation; and from his discourse upon Sanchoniathon, to his dissertation on Sacerdotal Absolution, he too frequently disclosed elaborate talent weakened by strange notions, and defective taste.

But in this consistent and unostentatious document there appears no assignable inducement to forgery. The plain and simple style is too dry for fiction, which usually calls in the aid of the marvellous: it describes not enchanted regions; it tells not, as of erst did St. Augustine, of men without heads, wearing an eye in the breast; nor does it, with St. Jerome *, treat of centaurs, or pickled men with tails and goats' legs. It appèars merely to have been written to point out the places of the new colonies to people already possessing some knowledge of them; and it everywhere bears strict internal evidence of a voyage actually performed;—in short, to the scepticism of Dodwell,—without appealing to Pomponius Mela, Pliny, Ramusio, Solinus, or Vossius,—we may oppose the accuracy, diligence, learning, and judgment which have been arrayed in its favour, under the banners of Bougainville, Gosselin, Rennell, Falconer, Montesquieu, and Robertson.

Amongst the arguments which have been urged against the authority of Hanno's Journal is the fact that, in Pliny's time, there existed no remains of the establishments therein mentioned. Now, when we recollect that this voyage was undertaken in the palmy days of Carthage, that is, before the Punic wars, we cannot assign a less date to it than 700 years B. C. The '*florentissimis Pœnorum rebus*,' applies to an early epoch, because, as Bougainville has justly observed, a power which had so great an elevation in the days of Xerxes, must have been very flourishing before his time. In the space then of eight or nine centuries, from the founding of such mere commercial colonies, the Carthaginians may have amalgamated themselves with the natives; and if their towns attracted not the notice of Rome, we may demand, with Montesquieu, whether it was a Corinth, or an Athens, that Hanno built upon those coasts? It is also objected, that the appearance of the coast does not at all correspond with the description; that elephants are described, where no elephants exist; and that Cernè was unknown to Strabo. The first of these cavils is rashly advanced; the second is the effect of increased population; and the third is the geographer's own fault, since he might have found a description of it, not only in Hanno, but also in Polybius and Scylax.

* This irascible saint assures us that *he saw* Scotchmen, who might have had pork, prefer eating the stern-frames of youths, and the breasts of young women!

In the learned and elaborate discussions to which this voyage has given rise, it has been objected, that the Periplus is written in Greek; but Greek being a literary language, it was probably recorded in two documents; and the Punic being the least read, and liable to be amongst the books destroyed by the Romans, has been lost; for, that Hanno committed a journal to writing, is evident, from the quotations of ancient authors. The gospel of St. Matthew in Hebrew and Greek, the inscription over our Saviour's cross, and the Rosetta stone in the British Museum, afford proofs of the practice of recording objects of importance in several languages. According to a practice common to all countries, of dedicating spoils, and carrying home proofs of having visited remote lands, the skins of the women were placed in the temple of Juno. This is expressly stated by Pliny,—yet Dodwell, without the warrant of facts, says, that there did not prevail, in the Carthaginian state, the custom of suspending *archives* in temples; unless the women's skins had been converted to parchment, or the Periplus been tatooed thereupon, it is difficult to consider them as archives. They remained in that fane till the destruction of Carthage; and the critic thinks he has detected an anomaly, in the journal being deposited in the temple of Saturn, and the skins in that of Juno. As well might he expend his ink to show, that the flags of Napoleon were not deposited in St. Paul's Cathedral, because his eagles are placed in Whitehall Chapel. This critic also thinks it improbable, that people on voyages of discovery should not only give names to cities and colonies which they founded, but also bestow new appellations to promontories, harbours, and rivers. Shades of Columbus, and Diaz, and Drake, and Cook, what say ye to this as an objection to the veracity of a narrative? Where are all the Barrow, Melville, Cockburn, and Croker isles, straits, bays, capes, and mountains in the North, and the East, and the South, and the West, with which our modern navigators have nearly destroyed one of the eyes of history?

It is also said to be unlikely that journals were kept at so remote a period. But this is mere assertion without proof. The Colchians possessed directories of coasts, and had charts of the sea-shores engraven on stone pillars. Sesostris drew maps upon boards, and gave copies of them away. Nonnus describes a robe which was worn by Harmonia, the wife of Cadmus, on which were represented the sea, the earth, and the heavens,—and the whole was terminated at the bottom by the ocean. But the most remarkable geographical implement, on record, was that which Aristagoras, of Miletus, displayed before Cleomenes, the half-brother of Leonidas and Doricus. That prince, desirous of urging the Spartans to an incursion into Asia, seconded his arguments by putting forth a tablet of brass, upon which was inscribed every part of the habitable world, the seas, and the rivers. It was in pushing this design, that the crafty Aristagoras became so liberal in his attempts to bribe the Spartan king, that the daughter of the latter, a child only eight or nine years of age, cried out, "Father, unless you withdraw, this stranger will corrupt you." And the father withdrew accordingly.

Although it may be contended, that the 30,000 men embarked may be one of those errors so easily made in numbers, yet even at the full amount, there is nothing that exceeded the means and resources of ancient navigation. Polybius mentions ships of the Roman fleet as

carrying three hundred seamen and one hundred and twenty soldiers; and the Romans were but imitators of the Carthaginians, with whom the quadrireme was invented. And it is to be recollected, that many would be embarked, where it was known that the numbers would be thinned by dropping colonies along the route. The description of the elephants feeding is perfectly well depicted; for it has been shown by all who have written on those animals, from Ælian down to Captain Beaver, that they delight in marshy grounds. Even the rude approximation of the distance and direction of Cernè is as well expressed as the imperfect state of nautic knowledge admitted; it is not near so distorted as even the parts adjacent to Rome are on the Theodosian manuscript. As to the country being rendered impassable on account of the intense heat, it is as reasonable a description of torrid climes as could be expected, whose sandy districts, we can aver from experience, may absolutely be called burning ones. The Γορίλλας may have been a large kind of ape, which the biting and scratching goes far to prove; and as we are not aware of the existence of that animal near Carthage, the early voyagers would naturally be much astonished. The largest of the tribe is an orang-outang, which bears the trivial name of Pongo, in old Purchas, as well as in Buffon; it frequents the woods, and is most likely the prototype of the satyrs, fauns, and sileni of the ancient poets, painters, and sculptors.

One striking fact, in proof of the Carthaginians having introduced commerce on these shores, is the continuance of the Punic method of commerce, as described by Herodotus. C. B. Wadstrom was assured, from unquestionable authority, that in the Negro country there was an interior people, who withdrew from communication with those bordering the shore; and when they engage in commerce, which they do annually, they convey their goods to certain places, and there leave them. The people below bring their articles of traffic to the same spot, and parcelling them out according to the supposed value of those deposited, they retire. The former then return, and accept or reject the bargain. Thus the trade is carried on in mutual confidence, without personal intercourse. Herodotus mentions that this mode of barter continued without any instances of treachery *.

As to the country teeming with fire, the custom of burning stubble is too well known to all who have visited such climates. We ourselves recollect seeing a scene very similar to that described by Hanno, at Chuenpee, in China, where the shores in the vicinity of the Bocca Tigris were a-light for several miles. But as this has been a principal argument against the authenticity of the Periplus, we will cite other authorities. Park gives us an animated account of the annual burning of grass in Manding; and Major Rennell remarks, that had he written with a design to illustrate the journal of Hanno, "he could hardly have done it more effectually." And Bruce, describing a fire, which was lighted for the purpose of destroying the cover of the wild animals which they hunt, gives us this picture:—

"After the fire has consumed all the dry grass in the plain, and, from it,

* A confidence similar to this was manifested towards us by the French, at the surrender of Ulm, where our subsidy to Austria, sealed at the Bank of England, was transferred to our enemies with the seals unbroken, and they signed receipts for the alleged amount.

done the same up to the top of the highest mountains, the large ravines, or gullies, made by the torrents falling from the higher grounds, being shaded by their depth, and their being in possession of the last water that runs, are the latest to take fire, though full of every sort of herbage. The large bamboos, hollow canes, and such like plants, growing as thick as they can stand, retain their greenness, and are not dried enough for burning, till the fire has cleared the grass from all the rest of the country; at last, when no other fuel remains, the herdsman on the top of the mountains set fire to these, and the fire runs down in the very path in which, some months before, the water ran, filling the whole gulley with flame, which does not end till it is checked by the ocean below, where the torrent of water entered, and where the fire, of course, ceases. This I have often seen myself, and have been often nearly enclosed in it; and can bear witness, that, at a distance, and by a stranger ignorant of the cause, it would hardly be distinguished from a river of fire."

Such customs readily account for the fiery appearance of the country in Hanno's visit; and odoriferous plants and gums would yield the aromatic incense which the winds wafted off; and it also lets us know that the season in which he was there was the autumn. From this we easily find why the sounds of cymbals, and pipes, and drums, was heard at night, the day being then too warm for work or merriment. The Θεῶν ὄχημα has excited remark, but it is readily imagined, that one of the extinguished volcanoes, which exist between the high land of Vagres and the Sherbro shore, might have been in full activity two thousand five hundred years ago. Then, inquire the hypercritics, 'How do you account for the streams of fire that were sailed past?' It is probable, that the meaning of the term is merely that they sailed by the burning margins as described by Bruce; or after so much fire and heat they may have been startled by the luminosity of the ocean. We have seen this effect most gloriously, even in rowing in a single boat; and the effect of sixty gallies, of half a hundred huge oars each, must have been brilliant to a degree, little comprehensible to those who have never seen the ocean in that state. Captain Cook, in his second voyage, vol. i. p. 15, mentions, that while standing off and on, during the night, near Table Bay, "the whole sea, within the compass of our sight, became at once, as it were, illuminated; or, what the seamen call, all on fire. This appearance of the sea, in some degree, is very common." Adanson, on his passage to Senegal, near the identical spot treated of, observes—

"As soon as the sun dipped beneath the horizon, and night overspread the earth with darkness, the sea lent us its friendly light; while the prow of our vessel ploughed the foaming surges, it semed to set them all on fire. Thus we sailed in a luminous enclosure which surrounded us like a large circle of rays, from whence darted in the wake of the ship a long stream of light."

And in Grandpre's voyage to Bengal, to sell a rotten ship, is the following passage:—

"About eleven o'clock the swell became less, and in the course of a few minutes was completely gone: then the sea seemed on a sudden to be on fire. The phenomenon has been observed by several navigators who have described it. I find it impossible to give an idea of its appearance; the light does not resemble that produced by the track of a vessel and fish in phosphorous seas; it is absolutely fire, or appears to be so, and extends to the utmost limits of the horizon, so that the ship seems to swim on a burn-

ing ocean. The sea was gently agitated, and each undulation foamed like the waves of a river when the tide sets against the stream. It was this foam that sparkled, each small surge resembling a body of fire *."

These assertions form a leading conviction of the truth of the Periplus. Herodotus doubted the doubling of the Cape of Good Hope by the fleet of Necho, because the mariners asserted, that as they sailed southward, the sun, which had been on their left, appeared on the right hand—the very observation that proved the fidelity of their relation.

Having advanced this much in favour of the authenticity of this valuable fragment, it remains to notice the difficulty in defining the extent of the voyage, and identity of the places described. Gosselin, who thinks celerity incompatible with the means and manners of such old sailors, will only allow them to move by a slow diurnal motion, and barely permits them to pass the limits of Morocco: but while he plausibly seizes every obstacle to his credit side, and even warps the Periplus of Polybius, as preserved in the fifth book of Pliny's Natural History, to his purpose, he certainly assumes too many probabilities for facts, and almost applies the "argumentum ad absurdum" to the geographical detail of Ptolemy. Bougainville, whose liveliness urges him on, makes the fleet fly along as much too rapidly as his countryman retards them. Hanno, as if his journal had been drawn up for official use, entirely omits the passage from Carthage to the Straits, as well as to name the number of days spent in proceeding from thence to Cernè. The latter, Bougainville assumes from Scylax, as twelve days, which would give one hundred and four miles a day. From Cernè to the southern shore, twenty-six days are counted by Hanno; and because the squadron sent to establish Elmina, in 1641, sailed from Lisbon to Arguin, precisely in twelve days, and from thence to Cape Tres Puntas in twenty-six, he makes the latter the Southern Horn of the ancient navigator, and the latter part of his expedition to have moved at the rate of seventy geographical miles a day. Campomanes moves the fleet still faster, for he places the Gorillæ at St. Thomas, under the equator.

In this dilemma we are assisted by the talent and research of our lamented friend, the excellent Major Rennell, the result of whose analysis is far more conformable to the configuration of the coasts, and the tables of Ptolemy, than any other. We will notice a few points, to which we not only agree, but think that "on second thoughts" Gosselin and Bougainville would also.

Hanno describes Thymiaterium as overlooking a vast plain; this answers well to the Mamora of the Major, for we can bear witness that there is a noble extent of country, bounded by a forest, full of Arab douars, and noted to this hour for its herds and flocks.

The promontory of Soloeis is assuredly more likely to be the present Cape Cantin, than either Spartel, or Bojador; and the place of the five cities must have been at a small distance beyond the sandhills of the coast. Cape Cantin at present offers but little wood, and is now principally marked by a mean marabut on its summit; but this militates nothing against the Periplus; long since it was written, "*nemorosa*

* As we are only advocating Hanno's narrative as to the *effect* of the luminosity of the ocean on the senses, we forbear touching upon the *cause;* though we could readily run off half a fathom of print upon holothurias, medusæ, mollusca, salpæ, and the cancer fulgens.

Zacynthus" was sung of those bare rocks that bound the plain of Zante.

The little islet of Arguin answers well to the dimensions of Cernè, although the passage respecting its direction from Carthage is attended with difficulty, and has been attacked as inconsistent. But when we bear in mind that there is constantly a southerly set along that shore, often two or more miles an hour, which obliges ships to anchor in light winds, we shall find the two spaces between the Pillars and to Kerni, following all the sinuosities of the coast line, sufficiently near the mark for such a guess. M. Gosselin thinks Fidallah answers the dimensions of Cernè better than Arguin; but we can assure the critic that it is not an island at all; it is only a jutting point, with a walled Moorish village upon it.

The Carthaginians then reached the River Chretes, which answers to that of St. John; the λιμνην being perhaps a shallow bay, the conformation of which was confused by the islets and shoals of the great bank of Arguin. From the Chretes they sailed to another river, which being large and broad, and abounding with river-horses and crocodiles, would at once stamp it as the Senegal, even if the distance was less in accordance than it actually proves to be.

Having left Cernè for the south a second time, the Punic fleet sailed for twelve days along a coast, the inhabitants of which avoided them, and whose language the Lixitæ did not understand. The former were Negroes, and the latter probably Berbers. Here the description becomes strikingly distinct. They sail round Cape Verde, which was mountainous and covered with trees, many of them aromatic; and, having doubled it, come to an immense opening of the sea, on each side of which was a plain. The present appearance of Cape Verde is here exactly depicted, and the "opening" is equally just as to the extensive estuary of the Gambia.

They now stood along the coast till they came to a large bay, which tallies exactly with the form of the land between Cape Roxo and Bulama, while the Bijuga groupe of low and fertile islands complete the identity. Most of the critics adopted the term Ἑσπέρου Κέρας for a cape or promontory, till Major Rennell, merely reading the literal phrase of the Periplus—"*we came to a great bay, which our interpreters said was called the Western Horn*," applied it properly, and knocked away one of the bones of contention: that the term means a bay is clearly seen in the mention that an island was *in* it.

The alluvial Bijuga archipelago may have offered the lakes spoken of: and it is probable that in the ancient cabotage, or coast-creeping system of navigation, the whole of the space between the shoals of the Rio Grande, and the country of the Papels, was deemed a great lake. "The landing at Bulama," says Captain Beaver, "is remarkably easy and safe, *there being no surge*:" and as the identity of this fact is a point of some moment to the discussion, we may cite this intelligent officer—albeit he was not noticing the Periplus—as an authority that the Bight of Bissagos bears a close analogy, in form and fertility, to the isle-within-isle of Hanno. The Θεῶν ὄχημα we have already mentioned: and it only remains to say that the "bay called the Southern Horn, answers to the situation of Sherbro' island and the shoals of St. Ann."

Having made this attempt to vindicate the oldest "log" extant, we cannot conclude without noticing the doubts thrown upon the next in seniority. It will be remembered that Herodotus, who wrote about seventy years after the event described, tells us of one Scylax, of Caryandia, who, by the desire of Darius, undertook the conduct of a very extraordinary voyage: for he departed from the Pactyan territories, and followed the eastern course of the Indus till it disembogued into the sea; then, sailing westward, he arrived, after a voyage of no less than thirty months, at the head of the Red Sea, about 508 B.C. This was certainly a severe undertaking; for the inland navigation, without nicely balancing the sinuosities, was upwards of a thousand miles; and we can hardly suppose that he crossed from the mouths of the Indus directly to the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb. Several difficulties arise in the analysis of this narration, but which, from its distant date, are almost idle to discuss; for although the report was *published*, it does not appear that Herodotus had seen a copy of it. Dr. Vincent, who had a hero of his own to support, has, with more haste than is habitual to him, pronounced this voyage to be spurious,—a mere "Persian fable." We only wish his able illustration of the Periplus of the Erythrêan sea, had been followed by an inquiry into the voyages of Necho's fleet, that under the unlucky Sataspes, those of Iambulus, and Hippalus, and the details of the *Geog. Græci Minores*, as we are satisfied that though confusion has crept in, the substance is founded on fact.

But our object with Scylax is not so much in the light of admiral of this fleet, as in that of author of a Periplus, or sailing directory for the circumnavigation of the Mediterranean sea. This, though mutilated and corrupted, is a very valuable geographical legacy, notwithstanding it is of inferior interest to that of Hanno. He departs from Gades, proceeds by the northern shores to Greece and Syria, and from thence returning along the coast of Africa, reaches Abyle, or Ape's Hill, describing the natives, towns, rivers, &c. by the way.

Dodwell wishes to show that the "Pilot" is not the voyager of Herodotus; but Gronovius, St. Croix, and Rennell support its authenticity. As to the alleged discordances in courses, bearings, and distances, it were well to examine the charts of the same shores of twenty years ago with those recently published, to show the absurdity of carrying such a charge twenty-three centuries back, upon a work probably compiled, for the greater part, from the journals and remarks of illiterate seamen, and liable to all the interpolations and "corrections" of succeeding hydrographers.

One grand point has been insisted upon with great force by the doubters: "If this Scylax," say they, "be the same that commanded the fleet in the Indus, why should it not have been duly recorded in the Periplus?" Such an act would certainly have saved some midnight oil, —but its necessity is not a consequence: the mention of an Indian voyage had no more business in a Mediterranean Directory, than Humboldt's South America has with his mountains of Thibet; or the Travels of the blind Lieut. Holman in Russia, with those which he is now pursuing in Madagascar. But it is nevertheless clear, that if both the narratives are by the same individual, he ought at once to be placed at the head of ancient navigators.

MEMOIR OF THE SERVICES OF THE LATE REAR-ADMIRAL SAMUEL SUTTON.

Mr. Sutton commenced his naval career in the Monarch of 74 guns, commanded by Captain Sir Joshua Rowley, the father of the present Sir W. Rowley, Bart., of Vice-Admiral Sir Bartholomew S. Rowley, who died in the command of Jamaica, and of Vice-Admiral Sir Charles Rowley, K.C.B.

The Monarch was one of the ships belonging to the fleet under the orders of Admiral the Hon. Augustus Keppell, which engaged the French fleet, commanded by M. D'Orvilliers, in July, 1778. The result of this action is well known; and on Sir Joshua Rowley being removed into the Suffolk, in which ship he was Commodore, he was accompanied by Mr. Sutton. The Suffolk bore a conspicuous part in the engagement off Grenada, between Vice-Admiral Byron and M. D'Estaing, 6th July, 1779. Mr. Sutton then joined the Conqueror, Captain George Watson, on board of which Sir Joshua Rowley hoisted his flag as Rear-Admiral of the Red, and in this ship was in the actions between Admiral Sir G. Brydges Rodney and M. de Guichen, in the West Indies, in 1780. In one of these conflicts Captain Watson lost his arm, and died in consequence.

On the termination of hostilities with America, Mr. Sutton received from his patron, who was then Commander-in-chief at Jamaica, a commission, on the 1st of August, 1783, appointing him to act as Lieutenant of the Preston, of 50 guns, Captain Patrick Leslie. This commission was confirmed by the Admiralty, and in November following, Lieutenant Sutton was removed into the Childers of 14 guns, Captain Mackay, on the same station. In consequence of ill-health, Lieutenant Sutton returned from the West Indies; and in March, 1786, received an appointment to the Merlin sloop, Captain Edward Pakenham. In November, 1790, Lieutenant Sutton joined the Iphigenia, Captain Patrick Sinclair, belonging to the Channel fleet, under the orders of Lord Howe. Lieutenant Sutton's next commission was to the Culloden, 74, Captain Sir Thomas Rich, which ship was one of the squadron that sailed on the 23d March, 1793, from Spithead, under the orders of Rear-Admiral (afterwards Lord) Gardner, for the West Indies. In November, 1794, Lieutenant Sutton was appointed first of the Mars, 74, Captain Sir Charles Cotton, which ship belonged to the squadron under Vice-Admiral the Hon. William Cornwallis, when that distinguished officer effected his skilful retreat on the 16th June, 1795, from a French fleet of very considerable numerical superiority. In this affair, the Mars was the sternmost ship, and, although the enemy kept up an incessant firing, had none of her men killed, and only twelve wounded.

On the 1st September, 1795, Lieutenant Sutton was promoted to Commander, and to command the Martin, of 16 guns, which vessel was employed in protecting the coasting trade, during which time Captain Sutton conveyed from Leith to Cuxhaven the Duc d'Angouleme and suite; and on the 27th June, 1797, was promoted to the rank of Post-Captain. Captain Sutton remained upon half-pay until 13th March, 1799, when he was appointed to command the Prince, of 98

guns, having on board the flag of Rear-Admiral Sir Charles Cotton, and attached to the Channel fleet under the orders of Admiral Earl Howe. In November, 1800, Captain Sutton removed into the Prince George with Sir Charles Cotton.

On the 23d February, 1801, Captain Sutton was appointed to the Alcmene, of 32 guns, and assisted, on the 2d April following, at the destruction of the Danish ships and batteries at Copenhagen, by the ships under Nelson. In this sanguinary conflict, the Alcmene had five seamen killed, and twelve seamen and two marines wounded. Captain Riou was killed on board the Amazon, of 38 guns, and Captain Sutton succeeded that gallant and lamented officer in the command

On the renewal of hostilities with Bonaparte, Captain Sutton was appointed, 9th April, 1803, to the Victory, fitting for the flag of Lord Nelson, and sailed in the following month for the Mediterranean. On Nelson's arrival off Brest, he went on board the Amphion, Captain (now Rear-Admiral Sir Thomas M.) Hardy, and a few days subsequent, Captain Sutton captured L'Ambuscade, French frigate, of 32 guns, and 187 men, from San Domingo to Rochefort. The Victory then proceeded to the Mediterranean, and joined the fleet off Toulon in July, when Captain Sutton exchanged with Captain Hardy into the Amphion.

This removal ultimately proved of considerable advantage to each of these officers, as it led to one being present at the capture of some valuable Spanish treasure ships, which produced a large share of prize-money; and to the other, the obtaining high professional honours, and a pension of 1000*l.* per annum.

Early in October, 1804, the Amphion was cruizing off Cape St. Mary, in company with the Indefatigable, Captain (now Vice-Admiral Sir Graham) Moore, with the Medusa, Captain (now Vice-Admiral Sir John) Gore, and the Lively, Captain (now Rear-Admiral Sir Graham E.) Hamond, for the purpose of intercepting the Spanish ships on their voyage from South America. On the 5th, they were observed making their way for Cadiz, and Captain Moore, the senior officer, hailed them to shorten sail, but without effect, when they were fired upon by the English ships. A parley then ensued, and Captain Moore informed the Spanish Rear-Admiral that he had orders to detain his squadron, and earnestly wished to execute them without bloodshed, but that his determination must be instant. The Lieutenant despatched with this message soon returned with an unsatisfactory answer, and the engagement immediately commenced, each of the English frigates taking an antagonist. In less than a quarter of an hour, La Mercedes blew up alongside the Amphion, with a tremendous explosion, by which sad event it was supposed two hundred and forty persons lost their lives, among whom was a lady, with a family of eight children, and whose husband, with one of his sons, were spectators of the catastrophe from another vessel, on board of which they had gone just before the engagement began.

In half an hour two of the Spaniards surrendered, and the fourth, after an attempt to escape, was captured before sunset. The loss of the Spaniards, exclusive of the lives by the explosion of the frigate, was nearly one hundred in killed and wounded. The captured ships were safely brought in, and found to be of immense value in coined and uncoined silver, &c. This event was said to be in consequence of

government having received secret information that the wealth was intended for recruiting the finances of Bonaparte, which were then considered at a low ebb, and to enable him to carry on more effectively the war against this country. For this conduct Spain issued a declaration of war.

Captain Sutton, after leaving the Amphion, seems not to have been again employed; and on the promotion to flag-officers, which took place 19th July, 1821, was advanced to the rank of Rear-Admiral, but never hoisted his flag. At the period of his decease, which took place at his seat, Ditchingham-lodge, near Bungay, Suffolk, on the 3d of June last, the Rear-Admiral was a Deputy-Lieutenant and Magistrate for the counties of Suffolk and Norfolk. He has left a widow, and sons, some of whom, it is understood, are in the army.

MEMOIR OF THE SERVICES OF THE LATE LIEUTENANT-GENERAL GEORGE VAUGHAN HART.

This amiable and excellent officer entered the army in 1775 as an ensign in the 46th foot, and immediately embarked with his regiment for North America. He joined the armament at Cape Fear, North Carolina, in June, 1776, and served as aid-de-camp to Major-General Vaughan, during the unsuccessful operations at that time so injudiciously attempted at Sullivan's Island, against Charlestown, South Carolina. From thence he joined the collected and main army of Sir William Howe, at Staten Island, with which he served in the same year at the battles of Flatbush and Brooklyn (in Long Island), at the actions upon landing on York Island, and almost immediately after at M'Gowan's Pass on the same island. He was also present at the attack and capture of Fort Washington upon York Island, and of Fort Lee upon the opposite side of North (or Hudson's) River, and after the pursuit of the enemy across the Jersey, by Elizabeth Town, Raway, &c. towards Philadelphia, he remained, the following winter, at Amboy. His regiment, the 46th, occupied an old transport ship as a barrack, and were actively employed in constant escorts of ammunition, &c. continually attacked, between that place and New Brunswick, on the way to Trenton, Prince Town, and Burlington, where the advance of the army had taken up its winter quarters.

After the disaster to the Hessian troops in Burlington, and the retreat of Sir William Howe from the province of Jersey, the subject of this sketch embarked along with Lord Howe's fleet to the Chesapeake Bay, where the Pennsylvania campaign commenced; and he was accordingly present at the battles of Brandywine and German-town.

In 1777, he obtained a lieutenancy in the 46th regiment; and during the winter, whilst the army was quartered at Philadelphia, he was employed as assistant engineer in fortifying that town with field-works. In this situation, however, he never omitted availing himself of the permission he had of taking his share in the outlying duties of his regiment.

After the army had evacuated Philadelphia, and on its march from hence across East Jersey to Sandy Hook, Lieutenant Hart was at the

battle of Monmouth; but during the march he was chiefly employed in erecting bridges previous to, and destroying them after, the passage of the army over the different rivers; both operations being vigorously opposed, and with constant perseverance, by strong bodies of the enemy's riflemen always closely pressing and following the British army.

Lieutenant Hart next embarked with a considerable expedition commanded by General Grey (the father of the present Earl Grey), for the province of Connecticut, with the view of destroying depôts of naval and other stores at Newhaven, defended by two forts. This object was quickly and effectually accomplished, and upwards of seventy sail of square-rigged vessels were burnt in the harbour, and the forts blown up.

This service concluded, and a considerable supply of provisions collected, the expedition returned to New York; and soon after one of greater force, consisting of ten regiments, was equipped, and in 1778 sailed to the West Indies, under the command of Major-General Grant. Lieutenant Hart accompanied his regiment in this expedition, which assembled for a short time at Barbadoes, and thence sailed to St. Lucia, where the troops landed at the Cul de Sac, and he was appointed aid-de-camp to the Commander-in-chief, whom he could not immediately find, and obtained permission from Brigadier-General Medows to accompany him with the advance of the army, first to Morne Fortunée, and then to the Vigie, when the island was surrounded, and when the Brigadier-General the day following repulsed, with about thirteen hundred men, composed of the 5th regiment, (commanded by the late General Lord Harris, then a Major of that corps,) and the grenadier and light infantry of the little army, three distinct attacks of five thousand of the best troops of France, commanded by the Count D'Estaigne, who landed in order to retake the island, but on the repulse relinquished his hopes, and re-embarked.

At this period, March, 1779, Lieutenant Hart obtained the captain-lieutenancy of the 55th, General Grant's, regiment; and in December following he was promoted to a company. After being present at the naval action commanded by Admiral Byron, who unsuccessfully, off the island of Grenada, attacked the Count D'Estaigne's fleet, which had just then taken that island, and remaining about a year longer in the West Indies, Captain Hart returned to England.

After a short stay in this country, Captain Hart accompanied Major-General Medows, as his aid-de-camp, on board Commodore Johnston's ship, the Romney, fifty guns, together with a squadron of ships carrying two regiments, some artillery, and five additional companies of foot, for the purpose of making an attack upon Buenos Ayres. This enterprise was, however, given up on the sudden commencement of the Dutch war; and the expedition was ordered to proceed without delay for the capture of the Cape of Good Hope. It sailed for that purpose, but was attacked and disabled by the French squadron, under the command of Admiral de Suffrein, at Praya Bay, St. Iago, one of the Cape de Verd Islands, and left there to refit, while the French proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope, and reinforced its garrison to such strength, as caused the intended attack to be relinquished.

Near this place a Dutch East India ship was captured, in which authentic accounts were found of Madras being invested and in immi-

nent danger, Hyder Ally having invaded the Carnatic, and a powerful French fleet from the Mauritius expected to act in co-operation with him for the reduction of Madras, and the conquest of the English possessions in the Carnatic. These accounts induced Major-General Medows instantly to proceed with the troops under his command to the East Indies; and to his decision and promptitude at this most critical moment, we may justly ascribe the saving of the Carnatic.

Captain Hart was with the Major-General in two other naval actions, on board Admiral Sir Edward Hughes' ship, the Superb, off Madras, and off Batticallo, in the island of Ceylon, with the same French Admiral, Suffrein.

In 1787, Captain Hart was promoted to the majority of the 75th foot:—he continued to serve with Sir William Medows, in the East Indies, in the several capacities of aid-de-camp, military secretary, and deputy adjutant-general: and was present at the siege, assault, and capture of Bangalore; at the assault of the hill forts of Nundy Droog, and Savan Droog; the siege of Seringapatam; the pitched battle, on the 15th May, 1791, near that fortress, where his horse was shot under him; at the second siege of Seringapatam; and with Lord Cornwallis's army until the conclusion of that war. Subsequently, he served at the siege and capitulation of Pondicherry under Major-General Braithwaite.

In 1795, he became Lieutenant-Colonel in the 75th Foot: and in 1798, was promoted to the rank of Colonel. He was present, under the command of General Harris, at the battle of Mallavilly, and afterwards as 'Superintendent of the Line' (with an aid-de-camp attached) in bringing forward the Bombay army under the command of Major-General Floyd, whilst opposed by the whole cavalry of Tippoo Sultaun's army, to the third and last siege, concluded by the assault and capture of Seringapatam, at which he was likewise personally present; and where, with a detachment of the Bombay army, to which he then belonged, he took and maintained the advanced post of Argaum, where all the enfilading batteries were erected. Immediately after the capture of Seringapatam, he was placed in command of the newly-conquered province of Canara, on the Malabar coast, where he remained, generally at Mangalore, the principal marine establishment, and great naval arsenal of Tippoo Sultaun, until his third and final departure from the East Indies. In November, 1813, the gallant General Sir William Medows, closed an honourable and useful life in the seventy-fourth year of his age. By his will, he bequeathed his sword, the most honourable and proud mark of his attachment, a silver cup, and one thousand pounds to the subject of this memoir, by whom he had been closely accompanied during many years of the most arduous part of his valuable life.

On his return home he was placed on the staff in Ireland. On the 1st of January, 1805, he was appointed Major-General; in 1811, Lieutenant General; and subsequently, to the command of the northern district. He represented, for many years, the county of Donegal, in Parliament; and was Governor of Londonderry and Culmore. The Lieutenant-General died at his seat, Kildare, Ireland, on the 14th of June, his life having been prolonged to the period of eighty years. Few men could be more universally respected or courted in society for talents and endearing qualities.

MEMOIR OF THE SERVICES OF LIEUTENANT-GENERAL FRANCIS BARON ROTTENBURG.

In the year 1795, the Baron was appointed Major in Hompesch's Hussars; in the following year he became a Lieutenant-Colonel; and in 1797 was removed to a Lieutenant-Colonelcy in the 60th Foot. He served in Ireland during the rebellion of 1798, in which year he formed the fifth battalion of the 60th into a rifle corps. He also at the same period submitted to the Commander-in-chief a code of rules and regulations for the exercise of riflemen and light infantry, and their conduct in the field; which the Duke of York having approved, was published by authority, and made general in the army. In 1799 the Lieutenant-Colonel was present at the taking of Surinam.

In 1805, the Baron was promoted to the rank of Colonel; and in 1808 he had the command, with the rank of Brigadier-General, of four battalions of light infantry at the camp of instruction on the Curragh of Kildare. In the same year he was transferred from the Irish to the English staff; and charged with the formation of three battalions of light infantry, viz. the 68th, 88th, and 71st regiments, assembled at Brabourn Lees. He commanded the light troops in 1809 at the attack on the island of Walcheren and the siege of Flushing. On his return to England, he was replaced on the staff in Kent.

In May 1810, he was transferred to the staff in Canada, and on his arrival took the command of the garrison at Quebec: in July of this year he obtained the rank of Major-General. In 1812 he was, on the breaking out of the war with America, appointed to command the Montreal District. In 1813 he took the command of the troops in the Upper Provinces, and was appointed President of Upper Canada. He commanded in the two following years the left division of the army in Canada. In 1819 he received the rank of Lieutenant-General; he was also a Knight Commander of the Hanoverian Guelphic Order. Baron Rottenburg died at Portsmouth in April last, very generally respected.

TRIAL OF MR. BEAMISH'S NEW CONSTRUCTION OF VESSEL.

The trial, which had been granted by the Lords-Commissioners of the Admiralty to Mr. James Caulfield Beamish, of his new construction of vessel, by appointing the *Emerald* tender, the fastest cutter in his Majesty's service, to sail against the *Paddy from Cork*, commenced at Portsmouth on Friday last, the 13th inst. Sir Thomas Foley, the Naval Commander-in-chief at the station, had been commissioned with the arrangement of the match; and his flag-captain, Captain Hyde Parker, of his Majesty's ship Victory, and Captain Hastings, of his Majesty's ship Excellent, were appointed umpires. Lieutenant Nott, of the Excellent, was to start the vessels, which, it was agreed, should be tried against each other for three sailing days, with an interval of one day between each—the fitness of the days and the direction of the course to be decided on by the umpires.

First Day, July 13.—The course selected for the first day's trial

was from the Outer Spit Buoy at Spithead, to the southward of the Nab Light-vessel, thence to the eastward, round the Red Buoy of the Buolder, and back to the starting-post by the same points. Precisely at ten o'clock, A.M., the Paddy from Cork and the Emerald took their stations at the Spit, and the signal was given for starting. The Paddy had chosen a position on the lee-bow of her opponent; but the Emerald coming up to the required distance with full weigh upon her, before the Paddy's foresail had been let draw, placed the latter in an extremely unfavourable position; and Lieutenant Nott, seeing the inequality of the circumstances, called out that it was not a fair start. The Paddy, however, having made no formal objection to the umpires, the vessels continued their way. Not many seconds had elapsed from the time of starting when the Paddy, extricating herself from under the lee-bow of the Emerald, shot a-head. The Emerald nipped up in the wind and tried to regain the weather quarter, but without success, and the Paddy led the way to the Nab, which she rounded at 11^h 2′ 30″, followed by the Emerald at 11^h 5′ 30″, being a difference of three minutes in four miles and a half. The wind was light and unsteady from the south-west, which was a leading wind throughout; and it was observed, that in proportion as the breeze freshened the Paddy dropped her opponent, while on the wind falling light the Emerald drew a little on the Paddy. The Paddy, however, continued to lead, and rounded the Red Buoy of the Buolder at 12^h 37′ 30″, followed by the Emerald at 12^h 44′ 20″, being a difference of 6′ 50″ in eight miles. After rounding the Buolder Buoy, the vessels returned to the Nab, and passed the light vessel in the same order, but with an increased interval of 7′ 10″; the Paddy passing at 1^h 37′ 50″, and the Emerald at 1^h 45′. A fresh breeze sprang up as the competitors were running in to the Spit Buoy, which was reached by the Paddy at 2^h 30′ 20″, and by the Emerald at 2^h 41′ 0″, an increased difference *of ten minutes and forty seconds.* The whole distance sailed in this day's trial was twenty-five miles, in which the Paddy may be considered to have beaten the Emerald by nearly two miles; thus proving her superiority in running and reaching.

Second Day, July 17.—The object of the second day's trial was, to ascertain the comparative qualities of Mr. Beamish's construction in windward sailing and in a sea-way; and the wind continuing to blow from the westward, the Beacon Buoy of the Shingles, at the south-western extremity of the Needles' Passage, was fixed upon by the umpires as the point up to which the vessels were to beat. The appearance of the morning denoted a strong breeze, and soon after nine o'clock the Paddy and Emerald were in attendance at the Spit, from whence they started at 9^h 58′, the Emerald with a large gaff-top sail, the Paddy with a small one, the latter vessel on the weather-quarter of her opponent. For nearly half an hour little difference of velocity or weatherly qualities was apparent between the vessels, which might be attributed to their inequality of sail, and the lightness of the wind at this period of the race. The Paddy, however, maintained her position to windward, and whenever the breeze freshened, fore-reached on her opponent. The tactics of the Emerald appeared to be a constant endeavour to gain on the Paddy by sharp turns to windward (quickness in stays being one of her peculiar qualities), and consequently the tacking was short and continuous. This system of manœuvre, however, got the

Emerald into an awkward predicament; for standing in too near the flats off Ryde, she grounded. The Paddy immediately hove to, and kept as nearly as possible the same position with regard to the Emerald, which she had previously gained, until the latter was got off, when both vessels continued their course. About fifteen minutes' delay had been thus caused, during which time the Paddy had set her large top-sail, which, now, placed the two vessels on an equality as to sail. The Paddy soon felt the change and rapidly increased her distance from the Emerald, both to windward and a-head. The Emerald now wetted her sails, notwithstanding which expedient, and the general superior standing of her canvass, (for the Paddy did not seem to consider it worth the risk of accident to set her sails better,) she did not hold so good a wind as the Paddy. When the vessels arrived off Yarmouth, it was no longer a large top-sail; but an ordinary reef-main-sail breeze; but both cutters being powerful canvass carriers, only shifted top-sails. In this operation the superior expertness of the Emerald's crew was conspicuous, as was the case on all occasions of making or shortening sail throughout the day, when the Emerald invariably gained several minutes in point of time. But these adventitious aids were not sufficient to counterbalance her want of velocity, and when the Paddy entered the Needles' Passage, the Emerald was nearly *two miles* astern of her. From this period of the race it was evidently a hollow business; and now a head sea, with a strong adverse wind, afforded a fine trial of the comparative stability, weatherly, and sea-going qualities of the two vessels. Here also the Paddy's superiority was manifest. The Emerald pitching into the sea, threw up the spray to the head of her mast, which, bending forward and springing back with a sudden jerk, seemed every moment about to give way. The Paddy, on the contrary, divided the waves as they met her bow, and rode dry and smoothly over the broken water. At 2^h 56′ she passed the Beacon Buoy of the Shingles and hove to. The Emerald did not weather the same point until 3^h 7′ 30″ being a difference of *eleven minutes and a half* in a dead beat to windward of twenty-one miles.

After the Emerald had passed the buoy both vessels bore up for Portsmouth. The Paddy immediately shot a-head, and although without a top-sail, which she had lowered on heaving to, continued to keep the lead. The Emerald now set her large top-sail; but the Paddy having got hers up in about two minutes after, completely ran away from her opponent. At 4^h 10′ she was unfortunate enough to carry away the jaw-rope of her gaff, the refitting of which caused her a loss of more than ten minutes, as the main-sail had to be lowered, and the top-sail clued up during the operation. This casualty enabled the Emerald to come up considerably; but on the gaff being adjusted, the Paddy again scudded away, and arrived at the Spit Buoy nearly nine minutes before her opponent. The times of arrival being—Paddy, 6^h 45′ 30″; Emerald, 6^h 54′ 20″. Mr. Beamish's vessel having thus shown a decided superiority over the Emerald on every point of sailing, and more particularly in a sea-way and going to windward, where she was supposed to be deficient, the umpires considered it unnecessary that the trial should be farther extended.

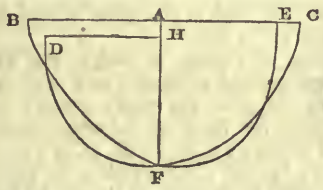
REMARKS ON CAPTAIN SYMONDS'S OBSERVATIONS ON NAVAL ARCHITECTURE.

BY A NAVAL ARCHITECT.

EVERY one interested in naval matters, but especially those concerned in the advancement of Naval Architecture, must approve the candid and explicit manner in which Captain Symonds, who has very recently been appointed to the highly-responsible situation of Surveyor-General of the Navy, has made public his views upon naval construction. It must also be considered, by every one, that the communication of Captain Symonds, in the last number of the "United Service Journal," is neither a hasty performance nor an imperfect development of his opinions. It is stated to have been printed eight years since, at the desire of friends; and it may therefore be regarded as a deliberate and mature exposition of Captain Symonds's ideas on the supereminently important science of the construction of ships.

As one of the individuals who have been educated at the School of Naval Architecture,—who ought to be conversant with the principles of naval architecture,—to whom it is presumed the public look for some improvement in this important and difficult science,—the Writer, in common with other members of that institution, feels bound, by a sense of public duty, to devote himself to the accomplishment of the object for which the School of Naval Architecture was established. Under a conviction that an endeavour to elicit truth, or to expose error, by a fair, impartial, and calm investigation of so important a subject, is at all times a praiseworthy employment, the Writer confidently anticipates the candid approval not only of scientific naval men in general, but also that of the distinguished individual on whose opinions he designs to offer, in the most respectful manner, a few critical observations.

Section 1. Section 2.



N.B.—These figures are meant to represent the greatest extent of a ship's frame at the extreme breadth.

The following queries, and the answer to the latter, appear to contain Captain Symonds's notions on the subject of the displacement of a ship:—

Q. "Which form in section 1 will contain most cubic feet, AB F, or H D F, and which form will actually bear most dead weight,—the surface of the exterior, or of the frame B F and D F, being of the same content in square feet?

"The same query holds good with regard to the figures in sec. 2, A C F and A E F."

Q. "Conceive the form of a vessel altered by taking from the flat floor, and adding that fulness to the breadth or beam above the water line (as demonstrated in the figures), without any increase of timber, and put the established weight of stores, provisions, and munitions, within it,—What effect will such a change have upon the capacity? How will the body swim?"

A. "The capacity will be much increased, because the body will swim higher out of the water, or apparently lighter, and might contain more weight."

With regard to the first query, to which no answer is appended, it may be observed, that if, for the sake of clear elucidation, A C F be supposed to be a triangle, and A E F a quadrant of a circle, C F being equal in length to E F, the area A E F is greater than the area A C F, in the proportion of 314 to 242; and, therefore, it is absolutely certain, if the surface of the exterior, C F and E F, are of the same content in square feet, the vessel A E F will actually bear most weight; although, from the answer to the latter query, Captain Symonds appears to have considered his readers would immediately, with him, think the contrary.

Respecting the second query, it may be remarked, that the inaccuracy of the answer given to it will perhaps appear with sufficient clearness, if we reverse the proposition, and conceive the form of a vessel altered by taking from the beam *above* the water, and adding *that* fulness to the body anywhere below the water, without any increase of timber; the bulk or fulness below water will thus be increased, and 'the body will swim higher out of the water, or apparently lighter, and might contain more weight.' It is perfectly obvious, that if a part of the fulness is taken from the floor *below* the water, and *that* fulness added to the beam *above* the water, the body will *not* swim higher out of the water, and could *not* contain more weight, and the capacity would *not* be much increased. If the fulness taken from the floor were to be added to the body as near the surface of the water as possible, but at the same time *below* it, the statement of Captain Symonds would even then be equally erroneous. The body would still swim at the same depth, and displace precisely the same quantity of fluid as before the alteration.

The following questions and answers have reference to the best form for a ship's midship section:—

Q. "Which form would most prevent, and least favour, the shifting of cargo or ballast?"

A. "It could not shift in the sharp body, but might in the round one."

Q. "Which form would float most erect, and steadily, without being in danger of oversetting when the cargo is removed, and with only a small degree of ballast?"

A. "The broad, sharp form; because that with a flat floor would have no hold of the water, and might easily fall on its side."

It is proper to remember that a shifting of ballast, or cargo, can never take place in any ship until she becomes inclined or heeled to a very large angle. Let us, for the sake of clearness, suppose the sharp vessel's sides to form a right angle, or 90°, at F; and let the floor of the other vessel be quite flat. Suppose both to be inclined at sea by a lee-lurch, or by a sudden gust of wind, to a greater angle than 45°, say 46°; it is as plain as possible that whilst the floor of the float vessel, with the ballast on it, will be raised to an inclination of only 46° above the horizon, and the vessel be perfectly secure from oversetting, the weather side of the sharp vessel will be elevated 91°, so as to pass the vertical, and all the ballast or cargo on the weather side will necessarily fall to leeward; and this sharp vessel will, infallibly, overset and sink. The ballast, on the lee side, is prevented from shifting by the projecting planks on the sides.

The next question to be noticed is one of very considerable importance, and deserving of particular attention.

Q. "Which form is most likely to become hogged or broken backed when laid up at moorings in a light state?"

A. "That form, it is imaginable, where the centre is very full and the extremities suddenly tapered and overhanging; while that which has a gradual increase of breadth upwards, and no sudden overhanging bearings, cannot be distressed with the weight of moorings."

The prevention of the arching or hogging of our large ships of war is undoubtedly an object of very great importance. And in contemplating the expediency of making an alteration in the form of the sides of large

ships, it is especially worthy of consideration, whether such alteration would have any effect in increasing or in diminishing the tendency of ships to arch.

It is sufficiently evident that the longitudinal strength of a ship, or that strength by which she resists a tendency to arch, is derived principally from the outside planking; and from that part of it more especially which is applied on the upright part of her sides, at and near the surface of the water. In the same manner as the stiffness of a beam, placed on a fulcrum, with weights suspended at both ends, is great in proportion as its depth is great;—or, rather, it increases as the square of the depth increases, when the thickness remains the same;—so the strength which a ship derives from the outside planking, by which alone she can effectually resist arching or hogging, is very much greater or less, according as her sides, above and below the water's surface, are nearly coincident to a greater or less extent with a vertical plane. A ship, therefore, whose sides fall inward below the water, like A C F, in Sect. 2, and tumble home very much above the water, would infallibly become arched, or broken backed, in a much shorter period than another ship, whose sides are straight and upright between wind and water. The question respecting the expediency of increasing the breadth of large ships, appears accordingly to be,—to what extent can the breadth of ships be increased with advantage to their sailing qualities, without a sacrifice of that form of the sides upon which the strength of large ships evidently depends?

Another, and a very interesting question, proposed by Captain Symonds, is,—"Which of the two forms, A E F, and A C F, is most capable of velocity?" The answer given is—"The sharp, broad figures."

It will at once occur to the reflective reader, that when it is asked, which figures are most capable of velocity, and it is asserted in reply,—"the sharp broad figures,"—so gratuitous an assertion is by no means equivalent to an irrefragable proof.

For an answer to this much-disputed question, the Writer refers the reader to an article in the 12th number of the "Papers on Naval Architecture." The writer of that article has endeavoured to demonstrate, in as strict a manner as the nature of the subject admits, that a certain form, which could be produced in a most systematic manner, is, of all other forms, the best adapted both for velocity and stability.

It has generally been supposed that the resistance of water to bodies moved in it is the same at all depths. But if the proof of the contrary opinion, in the article referred to in "Papers on Naval Architecture," that the resistance is greater at greater depths, is legitimate and confirmed by experiment,—and the fast sailing of the Columbine, a corvette of 18 guns, and the Pantaloon, a brig of 10 guns, built on the system of Captain Symonds, would, it is believed, go far to establish this point,—then is the answer to this question a correct one, so far (but so far only) as the great breadth of A C F fulfils the condition shown in the article referred to, to be essential to the form best adapted for fast sailing.

It may just be mentioned, with reference to the question respecting the breadth of ships, that a ship formed with a straight and upright side between wind and water, may have a much less extreme breadth in midships, and, at the same time, a much larger general breadth, or a larger area of load water line, than a ship with a round side; and the former ship may be both a stiffer vessel and a faster sailer than the latter. If the reasoning of the writer, to whose paper reference has been made, is conclusive, that ship will sail the fastest, *cæteris paribus*, whose centre of gravity of the displacement is situate at the least distance below the surface of the water, and not that ship which, *cæteris paribus*, has merely the greatest extreme breadth in midships.

The questions and answers which have thus been noticed are expressed

with sufficient clearness. The writer is unwilling to offer any observations on some other queries and answers, which appear very objectionable on account of their apparent ambiguity. A few remarks will be added on the subject of the register tonnage of ships, respecting which a great deal worthy of attention has been advanced by Captain Symonds and other writers.

It may not be improper to state, in reference to the Rose corvette, mentioned by Captain Symonds as "a third (inferior to an 18 gun brig) as to physical strength, from an evident want of beam," that, in the year 1819, an order was received at the School of Naval Architecture to prepare two drawings of corvettes, one of which should not exceed a prescribed number of tons, and the other without restriction as to tonnage. Two drawings were accordingly forwarded to the Admiralty, one some 50 or 60 tons larger than the other, and, it is said, recommended by the constructor, as a design very preferable to the other for a corvette of 18 guns. The draught of the vessel of the smaller tonnage was, nevertheless, preferred by authority; and from this draught the Rose was built. The Professor of the College has, it is well known, always been restricted in the construction of the vessels, built from his designs, in a similar manner.

The present Right Honourable Board of Admiralty appear determined that so absurd a restraint shall be no longer allowed to embarrass the naval constructor. And it is to be hoped the day is not now distant when the legislature will rescind that objectionable law by which the tonnage of merchant-vessels, as well as ships of war, has been so long most erroneously computed, and through which British ships in general have been built deep and narrow, and are, in consequence, remarkable for nothing so much as for their very bad sailing. In the event of a war, it is of course to be expected the fast-sailing cruizers of our enemies will find an abundant and profitable employment in the capturing of our merchantmen, in spite of the utmost efforts of our navy. The existing law of tonnage operates as, what political economists call, a drawback on the production of fast-sailing vessels. It is most desirable, on the contrary, for the sake of our national prosperity, that a bounty should be granted to all producers of ships of a superior velocity. In the same manner as it is, and has been, the interest of shipowners to build narrow ships—because the law of tonnage ordains, that the burthen shall be computed by multiplying the square of their breadth by a certain fraction of their length—so would it become advantageous to proprietors of shipping to build broad and shallow vessels, if the legislature were to enact, that the tonnage of all vessels, or, at any rate, those which may henceforward be built, shall be estimated by a product of the square of the *depth*, and a fraction of the length. The depth should be taken from the under side of the deck plank, of the deck next above the water, to the frame-timbers of the vessel, on a vertical line, half way between the middle line and the outside of the hull. And such a fraction of the length could be adopted, that the tonnage of vessels in general would be calculated with as much accuracy as can be either desirable or necessary.

The advantage which would be derived from such an alteration of the established law of tonnage is, that provided the fraction of the length were determined properly, with due reference to that form to which merchant-vessels would certainly approximate under the operation of such a change in the law, the tonnage would be, as nearly as possible, the average burthen of a ship; and it could be calculated with just the same expedition and facility as it can by the present rule.

HISTORY OF HIS MAJESTY'S SHIP CUMBERLAND OF SEVENTY-FOUR GUNS*.

CAPTAIN,

Thomas Baker, November 22nd, 1811.

In January 1812, the Cumberland, having been repaired and refitted joined the North Sea fleet in the Downs, and soon afterwards was detached, under the Aboukir, 74, to cruize off Isle de Bas, in order to intercept two ships of the line that were at Cherbourg, if they should sail to the westward, during winds from that quarter. The squadron occasionally put into Torbay, and upon the Aboukir being relieved by the Vengeur, 74, the Cumberland became commodore. On the 25th of February, these ships and the Fawn sloop-of-war being off Berry Head, about noon a violent squall laid the Cumberland almost upon her beam-ends, and blew the close-reefed main-topsail (the only one set) into ribands:—just afterwards, the mainmast was struck by lightning, several of the iron hoops bursting asunder as if they had been cotton threads, and the top was set on fire. This was soon extinguished, and it is worthy of remark that no person was seriously hurt, either on this or upon the two preceding similar visitations, although the vivacity and force of the electric fluid may be estimated from the injury done to the mast, which in this instance was also rendered unserviceable. The Vengeur lost her mainyard by the squall, but the Fawn escaped injury. The squadron repaired to Portsmouth, and the Cumberland having obtained another mast, sailed in March, under the Bulwark, Rear-Admiral Durham, accompanied by the Elizabeth and Plantagenet, seventy-fours, to the Bay of Biscay, in quest of the Orient squadron under Admiral Allemand. The cruize did not afford any occurrences of interest, except that the ships experienced much bad weather, and were in sight of the Virago gun-brig when she recaptured a Spanish ship, for which they shared. Allemand, after an unmolested cruize extended to the Azores, during which he made many captures, returned into port, having, with a good fortune of which the present is the third instance recorded in this narrative, eluded the search of several squadrons. In April our squadron put into Plymouth, from whence the Cumberland rejoined the North Sea fleet, then at anchor on the *Eighteen Fathoms Bank*. This fleet was commanded by Admiral Young, in the Impregnable, 98, and consisted of about twenty sail of the line. Besides the blockade of the Scheldt, that of the Texel was included in its duties; and for the latter end, four sail of the line, usually under Rear-Admiral Ferrier, cruized off that port during spring tides, and resorted to Hellesley Bay in the neaps. These ships were relieved every month, the duty being taken alternately; and in summer it formed an agreeable contrast to the monotony of the blockade, which, deducting the convenience of frequent communications with home, was the most uninteresting one of the war; for at the above anchorage land is not in sight, except in very clear weather, and the West Cappel steeple is almost the only terrestrial object visible in the horizon. So large a fleet riding out heavy gales of wind in these circumstances, presented a novelty in naval history, that probably had not occurred, unless in the Dutch wars of the sixteenth century, if then: and it is even more probable, that no former period can furnish an example of such a fleet remaining at anchor in the open sea, utterly without shelter, until the commencement of the autumnal equinox. Sir E. Pellew is reported to have attempted to maintain the blockade in the above position during the winter of 1810, but nature has certain limits that are not to be passed with

---

* Concluded from page 365.

impunity, and even the acknowledged seamanship of the gallant Admiral was obliged to succumb to the force of *south-westers*.

In one of the gales alluded to, which the Cumberland rode out, the Impregnable either parted or drove, and if the latter, slipped her cable and got under canvass; the Horatio frigate, riding near her, promptly followed, and attended the flag-ship until next day, when the gale moderated, and they returned to the anchorage. Admitting that ships of the former class have been greatly improved in their sailing and working qualities, still their comparative unfitness for riding at anchor in exposed situations, or for beating off a lee shore, is obvious; for, in both these cases, they offer greater resistance to the wind, and in the last, their counteracting power is less than that of other ships. Unless, therefore, in the ports of the North Sea, an enemy's fleet should include one or more three-deckers, which is rather improbable, the policy of employing ships of that class in such blockades is very questionable. The accommodation of the *staff** attached to an admiral, is certainly not a sufficiently imperative consideration to be opposed to the risk of wreck, in a sea where there is so little *drift*, and scarcely a port for refuge.

The Cumberland, in her turn, formed one of the Texel squadron, and in the autumn returned with the fleet to the Downs. In November she was ordered to Portsmouth, and subsequently to Cork, from whence she sailed in December with the Surprise frigate, Amaranthe and Cherub sloops, and the West India and Brazil convoys, consisting of about one hundred sail. At the proper point the Cherub and Brazil trade parted company, and a few days afterwards the Cumberland recaptured an English galliot with a valuable cargo. In crossing the tropic of Cancer, the customary ceremonies were performed, during which the supremacy of the ocean deity seemed fully established, until the following novel incident occurred, which, although of rather a ludicrous character, proved nearly fatal to the seaman who personated Neptune. A Portuguese topman was summoned in his turn to the main-deck tribunal, but refused obedience, on the ground that having on a previous occasion submitted to the operation that is performed with such rigid impartiality upon the *chins* of the *unregenerate* sons of Ocean, he ought to be exempted from its repetition. Failing however to verify this assertion, the excuse was not admitted, and his contumacy was reported to the monarch, who promptly determined to vindicate his questioned prescience, and forthwith proceeded to the forecastle to seize the rebel. On his approach the Portuguese fled to the jib-boom end, pursued by Neptune, who whether encumbered with the *regalia*, or, as the uncharitable surmised, too strongly influenced by his morning potations, *fell overboard*, and as the ship

---

* The word *staff*, used in a sense obviously contrary to any of its nautical significations, may appear to need explanation: indeed, it is introduced purposely to excite attention to the propriety of its adoption, in the hazarded sense, in the Naval vocabulary. Naval parlance does not afford a word that expresses the official *retinue en suite* of an Admiral, unless it be the very indefinite one of "*followers:*" a term therefore is wanted, that will briefly designate in the mass several persons, who, although they individually perform different duties, are attached to and move with a superior officer, and do not belong to a particular ship any longer than his flag is borne by her. For this purpose, the word in question seems perfectly appropriate, and it has been long used in the army for a parallel one. Feeling aware, however, that it is a ticklish experiment to propose the introduction of a military phrase among seamen, to which no less penalty is attached than being dubbed a *horse-marine*, the writer begs to urge, in arrest of judgment, (although not without fear that the plea may aggravate the offence,) that état-major, is used similarly in the French marine. Finally, and perhaps conclusively on the point, he would remark, that *retinue*, and *suite*, are as applicable to persons attached to private individuals of rank as to those attached to public functionaries, which *staff* is not.

was running five or six knots before the wind in a good deal of sea, it was for a brief period doubtful whether he had descended to the caverns of the deep, or would deign to revisit the mortals. However, whilst these probabilities were being rapidly discussed, they were partially solved by the reappearance of our hero astern, where fortunately he was enabled to lay hold of a rope that happened to be towing overboard. Now a scene commenced, in which it would be difficult to decide if feeling of alarm for his safety, or of involuntary mirth excited by his extraordinary figure and assumed character, in connexion with his actual situation, predominated: to palliate the indulgence of the latter, when the life of a fellow-creature was in jeopardy, it would be necessary to picture a man of unusually large, muscular, and symmetric form,—the upper part of his body being naked, and together with the face grotesquely painted, his head surmounted with a fantastic crown of feathers, and the whole man thus towed through the water with a velocity that, combined with the heaving of the sea, occasionally exhibited full half his person above the surface; for his transition from the bow to the stern of the ship had been too rapid to admit in the interval of any very sensible diminution of her way from the agency of the helm. In short, the imagination needed but little indulgence to yield to the illusion that the fabled sea-god was present to our view. The ship was now hove to, and a valuable captain of the forecastle rescued from a fate that would have been followed by deeper feelings of regret than resulted from the immediate cessation of the sports through which the accident originated.

While running down the *trades*, the Surprize, with our recapture in tow, parted company, and subsequently these vessels also separated. In the night preceding our arrival at Barbadoes, the former rejoined with the American privateer brig Decatur, which she had captured in the interval; and about a fortnight afterwards our galliot was wrecked on that island, and four of the prize's crew drowned.

In January 1813, the Cumberland and her convoy arrived in Carlisle Bay; and the former sailed a few days afterwards to protect some of the merchantmen to their respective destinations among the Leeward Islands. Remaining for a short time at St. Thomas, she beat to windward outside of that group, and was in sight of the Peruvian sloop-of-war when the latter captured the ship privateer John of fourteen guns, of Salem: having received the prisoners, the Cumberland proceeded to Dominica for water, and then returned to Barbadoes. About this time a bronze statue of Nelson was erected at Bridgetown, and opened to public view. At the latter ceremony the public authorities and the garrison of the colony assisted, and as it peculiarly interested the navy, part of the crews of the ships-of-war in the bay were present. The festivities of the day were concluded by a ball, on leaving which the Cumberland's lieutenants and midshipmen (between whom a happy concord subsisted, that with rare interruptions was characteristic of the ship) deemed it an appropriate termination of the celebration of the event to place a cocked hat upon the head of the figure, whilst they poured a libation of wine at its feet, and quaffed some more to Nelson's memory.

While lying here, and sharing the *guard*, our boat detained the brig Commerce, under Swedish colours, and laden with lumber, and both vessel and cargo were condemned as American property. Being ordered to St. Thomas to collect convoy for England, the Cumberland on her way thither visited Trinidad, La Guayra, and Santa Cruz. In May she sailed with the Tribune frigate, Scorpion brig, Buffalo storeship, and two hundred and twenty-six West Indiamen: as it seemed probable the accustomed track would be infested by privateers, the commodore evaded the risk of capture that might have befallen some of the stragglers of so numerous a fleet, by shaping a course so unusually far to the eastward as to cross the parallel of Bermuda about the meridian of 52°. The winds favoured this passage across the Atlantic, which at the time referred to was not so common even with that option as it has subsequently become: hence the propriety of its adoption

caused some discussion among the old West Indian masters; but the result amply justified the measure, as all the convoy arrived safely, and the merchants of Lloyd's signified their sense of this successful escort by presenting the commodore with their thanks and a service of plate. About mid passage the Cumberland chased a large American schooner, with every prospect of capturing her, had not night intervened and rendered it inexpedient to chase farther from the convoy. This vessel and a Galacca ship that was lost sight of during the night in light winds off Sardinia, are the only ones she ever chased and did not examine, nor do these exceptions militate against her constant reputation for superior sailing. Soon after our departure from St. Thomas nearly all hands were affected by a kind of dysentery, so debilitating in its effects as, upon a moderate estimate, to reduce the aggregate strength of the crew one hundred men, although it terminated fatally in but one case. It was attributed to some part of the fresh water, our stock having been replenished at various places in the West Indies; for some of the grand tier (filled at Portsmouth) being fancied by a landsman passenger, who was a principal sufferer, its effects proved quite restorative.* From the prevalence of easterly winds the convoy put into Plymouth for a few days, and after accompanying it to the Downs the Cumberland went to Sheerness.

In August, having refitted, she was again attached to the North Sea fleet, which now comprised several Russian two-deckers, under Vice-Admiral Crown. Early in the winter, she joined the Texel squadron, and subse-

---

* Last winter, a transport that filled water at Deptford, on arriving at Cork to embark troops, was obliged to start and refill nearly all her casks, at the instance of the medical officer embarked; and there is ample reason to fear that Thames water, once so celebrated, has of late undergone a change baneful to the health of those who are confined to its use in the preparation of their daily food, which is the case with all who sail from that river. This change may be imputed to two causes, which, although of artificial origin, may be regarded as of a permanent nature, viz. gas works, and steam-vessels. From the former, are daily poured into the river large quantities of ammonia, and that this addition injuriously affects the water, may be inferred from the fact, that since the establishment of that method of lighting the Metropolis, some kinds of fish have nearly disappeared from between London and Gravesend. With respect to steamers, the action of their paddles not only hinders the *subsidence* of many of the almost infinite minute particles of impure matter discharged from the sewers and other sources, but the same disturbing influence when exercised in shoal water (or even in some places mid-channel between half-ebb and half-flood), raises a great deal of *silt*, increased again in quantity by the reaction of the swell that is often thrown on to both banks of the river, by the passage of a single steamer. These vessels have also contributed as much as the gas-works, to the ruin of the river fishery, partly from the alarm their noisy and rapid transit creates among the finny tribe, and partly, which is more germane to our subject, from rendering the water unfit for their use: these ill effects on the purity of the water, or on the habits of the fish, which is the minor evil, are not produced by the comparatively smooth and quiet progress of sailing vessels. In time past, Thames water, when carried to sea, underwent a natural self-effected purification, but the above causes, which to their present extent may be considered of recent introduction, have added so largely to the previously existing impurities, as to overcome this power and prevent the process from being perfected; for the ammonia being held in solution, becomes an inseparable part of the fluid, and the deposit of other and more gross matter is often so considerable, as to render it impossible to remove a cask of water, or pump it off, without rendering the contents thoroughly turbid. As the influence of these causes will extend, and that of the latter almost indefinitely, it is hoped the period is not far distant, when some gigantic scheme of filtration will be devised for supplying more wholesome water to the seamen who sail from our grand commercial emporium, and who it must be assumed are at present undergoing a course of slow poisoning, unless it can be demonstrated, that an article of the first necessity which poisons fish is harmless to man.

quently left Hollesley Bay, with the Princess Caroline, 74, under her orders, the former having on board a deputy from the Provisional Government of Holland, whom Capt. Baker accompanied to the Hague, and was the first English officer who personally communicated with, and rendered assistance to, the Government after the counter-revolution; the marines of the two ships being sent thither to assist in preserving order. At a later period, and soon after the arrival of the Admiral, Ferrier, who was followed by English troops, and by his Serene Highness the Prince of Orange, the marines were re-embarked, and the squadron, after looking into the Texel, (where the ships-of-war still showed French colours,) finally departed from the Dutch coast, for its usual rendezvous.

In winter, the chief dependence of the North Sea navigator must be placed on the dead reckoning and on soundings; and of the fallibility of these guides, maritime records afford melancholy proofs. The weather had been hazy for several days preceding the 18th of December, and was the same on that day, with a moderate breeze, against which the squadron was working to the southward: the pilots of the Cumberland scarcely dreamt of danger, and felt as confident of the ship's place, as is possible in a sea where the most experienced men of their profession are so frequently deceived: indeed, one of them was expressing this feeling to the writer about two P.M., when, rather to his dismay, the ship struck on the Cross-sand off Yarmouth. Fortunately, the tide was flowing, and by removing guns, starting water, and carrying out an anchor, the ship, after remaining on shore an hour and a half, and striking several times with considerable violence, floated off, without sustaining any apparent injury, and two days afterwards, arrived in Hellesley Bay. While laying here, the Erebus passed through, having on board Lord Castlereagh, who was proceeding to the continent, to negotiate with Napoleon. The squadron saluted his Lordship, in the course of which duty, a *shot* was fired from the Cumberland, and fell close to the Erebus. A very trifling deviation in the flight of this overlooked shot, might materially have effected the political arrangements of that important historical period. As the gunner was one of the best officers in the service, and had superintended the precautionary measure of drawing the guns, it was found impossible to fix the blame of the accident: the most probable solution of the difficulty being, that although a shot might have been drawn from each gun, one of the latter had been inadvertently *double shotted*. In connexion with this incident, and as a pledge that partiality for his ship will not deter the writer from the relation of matter that may supply a joke at her expense, he will not omit to state, that a marine in firing a musket to bring to a vessel, shot away the jib-sheet of his own ship: and that upon a similar occasion, the sprit-sail-yard was shot away by her own chace gun.

The continental war having nearly drawn to a close, we were anxiously expecting orders to proceed on some other service, or be put out of commission, when an accident befel us, which, although at first view it seemed calculated to hasten the latter event, actually, and rather unaccountably, terminated in the other.

On the 20th of January, 1814, at about eight A.M., the wind E.N.E., blowing very hard, with a heavy sea and occasional sleet, the Bedford, 74, then riding a-head of the Cumberland, was observed to part; the cable of the latter was instantly veered, and when it was observed that this expedient would not avert the impending concussion, an endeavour was made to cut, but the Bedford having now driven on board of her athwart hawse, gave her such an increased impulse astern, as to render this attempt fruitless, and the cable ran out with uncontrollable rapidity to the clinch; the check, however, enabled the Bedford's jib to cast and shoot her clear, and almost simultaneously the work of destruction commenced in our devoted ship. The Bedford's larboard mizen rigging had come in contact with our bowsprit, which the shock broke short off at the gammering, and threw on the forecastle with the *cap end aft*, and nearly demolished the cutwater: the

masts followed in quick succession, the fore and main-masts falling in board nearly fore and aft, and the mizen-mast over the stern, none of the stumps being more than six feet above the deck.* The fore-mast crushed all the boats upon the booms except one, the main-top; the main-top found its way through the poop-deck into the captain's cabin, and the mizen-mast carried away the boats that were suspended from it in the quarters, and thus the damage sustained in an incredibly short time, rendered this proud ship, for any active purposes, the most impotent machine upon the waters. At the time of this tremendous crash, the captain, some of the officers, and a considerable number of men were on deck, of whom, singular as it may appear, only five of the latter were hurt, and but one seriously. The writer having had the middle watch, and, moreover, being blessed with a sound exercise of the sleeping faculty, at the commencement of the uproar was in his hammock over the veering cable, the *fakes* of which were flying about the tier in such a fashion, as to render his continuance there a positive danger, and escape an affair of some difficulty: this, however, he accomplished, and hastily throwing on some clothes, was ascending the quarter-deck ladder, when an instantaneous glance disclosed the loss of the fore-mast, and exhibited the mighty main-mast "nodding to its fall," which the next *send* forward decided. Soon after the ships separated our riding cable parted, and the best bower failing to bring her up, the sheet anchor was let go, and after a lapse of time, so valuable that every moment seemed pregnant with the ultimate fate of the ship, accomplished that end; the delay, however, was unavoidable, the anchor being so encumbered with the wreck of spars and rigging. Meanwhile the ship had driven very near to the cutter sand, upon which a tremendous surf was breaking; and the loss of the masts had so materially decreased her stability, that she rolled the muzzles of the main-deck guns under water; this inconvenience however was fully compensated for by the consideration, that she now presented less surface to the action of the wind than before, but the united influence of that element and of the tide, until high water, rendered her situation one of no ordinary peril. In the night the gale abated, and next morning, the weather being quite moderate, the ship was removed to a safer birth near her consorts. In a few days she was rigged with top-masts for lower-masts, and top-gallant masts for top-masts, and proceeded to Chatham. It is often remarked, that ships of war acquit themselves well under *jury masts*, and it is partly from this fact, that some highly competent judges have concluded that they are generally overmasted. In the present instance, a comparison of the sailing of the Cumberland, with that of the Clio, a fine eighteen-gun brig that was ordered to accompany her, certainly strengthened this opinion. Persons who are conversant with the subject, will hardly need to be informed, that the ship did not outsail the brig; but it is equally true, that the latter had to carry such a large comparative proportion of canvass, as to excite the surprise of the beholders. Upon the day of our disaster, the Bedford having only sprang her mizen-mast, besides losing three anchors, bore up through the Swin, and clearing its intricacies and dangers, brought up safely in the evening, at the Lower Hope in the Thames. On the 25th, both ships arrived at the Nore together, and their crews cheered each other; they met once more during the war, and again cheered, and they would most probably have repeated this manifestation of regard (nearly obsolete in the navy, although truly national), called forth in their instance by a mutual participation in an imminent danger, as often as the chance of service might

* As a proof of the utility of semaphores, it is worthy of notice, that before noon, orders were received at Sheerness from the Admiralty, to "prepare a set of spars for a seventy-four:" the line of posts is not more than 120 miles in length, but the weather, except at intervals, was decidedly unfavourable for such communications.

have led them into company. The Cumberland having received a thorough repair and been refitted, was ordered to Portsmouth, and in June sailed from thence with an East India convoy, one of the ships having on board the first Bishop of Calcutta. Calling at Madeira, the Commodore prolonged his stay nearly three weeks, in consequence of the death of the governor (which occurred soon after our arrival) bringing to light some intrigues of a hostile character to British interests. In the interview which took place between the Bishops of Funchal and Calcutta, it was reported that they endeavoured to converse in Latin, a language in which both were "ripe scholars," but from having been taught a widely different pronunciation, their attempts to make each other understood were nearly fruitless.

As this digression from the proper subject of the narrative may incur the charge of being *out of* soundings, the writer resumes his province to relate, that, during the stay of the Cumberland, the marriage rites of the English Church were performed in her cabin, the parties being a Protestant of the United States, and a native Roman Catholic lady, whose reputed dower was a vineyard, producing three pipes of wine yearly. The above novel, but legal place of union was resorted to, in order to avoid certain obstacles which the local ecclesiastical authorities offered to its solemnization on shore. Nothing worthy of recital occurred on the passage to the Cape of Good Hope, off which place, in September, the convoy parted company for its ulterior destination, and the Cumberland put into Simon's Bay. In February 1815, she was sent to cruise off Cape Lagullas, where she detained the Portuguese brig San Joaquim, with about 300 slaves on board, from Mozambique bound to Brazil. These poor creatures were suffering every misery, and some of them dying daily, and as the brig was not sufficiently seaworthy to have reached Brazil, her detention proved an eventual benefit both to the slaves and to her owners, as the former were dispersed at the Cape for limited terms of bondage, and the latter received the full value of their vessel and cargo, in virtue of a decree of the High Court of Admiralty, reversing her condemnation, which had been awarded by the Colonial Court. Soon after the Cumberland's return to the Cape, she hoisted convoy signal for England, and among the vessels that assembled under her protection, was the Eagle, Southseaman, of London. This ship had loaded with skins and oil, at the Island of Desolation, in 49° S., where her visit had been signalised by the master's wife giving birth to an infant. This nativity is probably *unique* in kind upon that island, which, as the name imports, is one of the most miserable on the globe, being generally covered with snow, and "lies dark and wild, beat with perpetual storms:" and its presumed only native is an interesting girl residing in London.

In April the Cumberland, having received on board the officers and crew of the late United States brig Syren, captured by the Medway, 74, sailed from Table Bay, with about forty sail of East Indiamen. At St. Helena she was joined by the Grampus, 50, and some China ships, and arrived in the Downs in June. In a few days she received 600 Waterloo prisoners, and conveyed them to Plymouth: thence proceeding to Chatham, she was finally paid off on the 2nd of August 1815, having been uninterruptedly in commission seven years and eight months; and as she has recently been consigned to the pacific but less interesting employment of a convict hulk at that port, the history of her active services may be considered as having for ever terminated.

PROTEUS.

GENERAL DARLING AND MR. HUME.

It will be recollected by our readers, that amongst the various "victims" selected for sacrifice upon the altar of popular delusion by the member for Middlesex, not one was more wantonly worried than Lieutenant-General Darling, late Governor of New South Wales, during the absence of that officer at his post in the other hemisphere. The General returns to England —and mark, with how plain a tale he puts the patriot down! We quote the following passages from a "Letter, addressed by Lieutenant-General Darling, &c. to Joseph Hume, Esq. M.P."

It would be superfluous to comment on the simple, yet complete, refutation here adduced of the accusations so ignorantly and insidiously preferred against the absent Governor by the "honourable gentleman" to whom the Letter is addressed. The charges of Mr. Hume usually carry their own antidote—but the force and frequency of moral correction have only rendered him morally incorrigible. Mr. Hume advocates the doctrine of "physical force." Has he ever reflected that his *argumentum ad hominem* is susceptible of particular application?

"London, 25th June, 1832.

"Sir,—As it appears by the extract of a letter in the 'Sydney Monitor' of the 1st October last, which you are stated to have written to the Editor of that paper, under date of the 17th June, 1831, that, not satisfied with the calumnious manner in which, according to the reports in the 'Mirror of Parliament' for the month of June, 1830, and the newspapers of that period, you had spoken of my proceedings as Governor of New South Wales, you had thought proper *privately* to represent to Lord Viscount Goderich, on his re-appointment to the Colonial Department, the necessity of a change in the Government of that Colony, I shall, on the present occasion, confine myself to such observations, as appear necessary on your letter to Mr. Hall; my brother, Major-General Darling, having shown in a statement, which he published some time previously to my arrival, that your assertions respecting my proceedings in numerous instances, are unfounded aspersions of my public character. Extensive as the privileges of Parliament may be, and no one can respect them more sincerely than I do, I may be permitted to doubt, whether they warrant such proceedings as yours. Of this, at least, I feel assured, that no one, actuated by feelings of justice alone, would have availed himself of them in the same manner to the prejudice of an absent officer, filling an arduous and highly responsible situation.

"It is proper to explain, before I quote the extract from your letter to the Editor as given in the Sydney Monitor, that Lord Goderich has assured me, that your statement respecting my recall was totally unwarranted—and that he had, in consequence, when first apprized of your communication to Mr. Hall, written to Major-General Bourke, desiring he would give the utmost publicity in the Colony to the above fact. Your letter will, however, afford the public an opportunity of judging of the grounds, on which you appear, according to your statement, to have thought it necessary to urge my removal—and of the manner in which you have spoken of my conduct and proceedings. It is as follows, viz.—

"'The attempt, after your liberation from prison under the general amnesty, to destroy you, by levying the penalties, appears to me to mark a degree of vindictive revenge that can scarcely be equalled in the annals of oppression of the most profligate Colonial Governments. On the accession of the present Ministry, I lost not a week privately to represent the necessity of a change in the Government of New South Wales; and I restrained myself from bringing the conduct of General Darling before the House of Commons, only on the conviction in my mind, that Lord Goderich was desirous to act fairly to the Governor and the Colony. With such assurance, I did not entertain a doubt what the result would be, and I waited with patience the determination of his lordship. The recall of General Darling, and the appointment of General Bourke, will be, I hope, hailed in the Colony, as it is considered by me, a relief from a destroying and mischievous plague, that was pervading the whole society of the Colony, embittering their very existence, and driving some to the very verge of self-destruction, when they had lost the courage of waiting for a change. You have done your duty to yourself and to your rights as an Englishman,

in giving the most persevering, and I will add, effectual opposition to lawless power, under very disheartening circumstances, for so many years; and I trust your fellow-settlers will now appreciate the value of your exertions, and will repay you for all you have suffered, when I assure them, that I believe it is solely to your public-spirited conduct and fearless intrepidity, in exposing the misrule of General Darling, that he has been recalled. I know not General Darling, and I am equally ignorant of you or of any one of the victims of power, except so far as the perusal of the public and private documents submitted to me, have made their impression on my mind. It is on public grounds, therefore, that I have interfered,' &c.

" In reply to the first passage, it will be sufficient simply to state, that *there was no 'general amnesty,'* as Mr. Hall has led you to believe; but that I, of my own accord, without any order, or the suggestion of any one, availed myself of the occasion of His Majesty's accession to the throne, to liberate Mr. Hall from gaol, being influenced solely by a feeling of compassion for his family. It was an act of grace for which he is indebted to me alone. The numbers of the 'Sydney Monitor,' published subsequent to that event, will show the manner in which he has acquitted himself of the obligation. The *penalties* he had incurred in consequence of his persevering resistance of the law, in refusing to enter into the recognizance required as Editor of a newspaper, (which, to prevent misconception, it may be necessary to observe, is the same in New South Wales as in England,) had accumulated to a considerable amount. That his pardon might be complete, I gave directions that these penalties should be remitted, as well as the unexpired term of his imprisonment, amounting, from his several sentences, to a period of about eighteen months. Now, Sir, let me ask, if there is anything in this proceeding, which, as you affirm, 'marks a degree of vindictive revenge that can scarcely be equalled in the annals of oppression of the most profligate Colonial Governments;' or, if it is *this* part of my conduct, which, according to your letter, you appear to have had so much difficulty in restraining yourself from bringing under the consideration of the House of Commons? To proceed—As Mr. Hall continued, after his liberation, to publish his paper as heretofore, he was again called on to enter into the necessary recognizance, and again refused to do so. It was for *this* breach of the law—for the recovery of the penalties incurred *subsequently* to his pardon and release from gaol, that orders were given to proceed against him! Will any unprejudiced person say, that, consistently with my public duty, I could have acted otherwise? It will be seen, that Hall's case corresponds exactly with *Carpenter's*, which was brought before the House of Commons in the month of September last. Carpenter appears to have expressed his determination not to enter into the recognizance required by law, in consequence of which he was proceeded against and imprisoned. Hall, in like manner, refused to enter into recognizance, and orders were given to proceed against him; but owing to some irregularity in the proceedings, the trial fell to the ground, and Hall was *not* imprisoned. The proceedings against *Carpenter*, which were *instituted by His Majesty's Attorney General*, afford the best means of judging whether those in the case of Hall, (which was of a much more aggravated nature than Carpenter's,) were such as to justify the observations in your letter, or your representation to the Secretary of State, of the necessity of my removal from the government of New South Wales.

" Mr. Hall has induced you to believe, who so readily became the dupe of the artifice he practised, in affixing the figure of a coffin to his paper, and decking it out with the symbols of mourning as a mean of *proving* that the press was 'strangled,' when, at the very moment, he was publishing the most disgusting libels, that I was under the necessity of granting him a pardon on His Majesty's accession; and that I, at the same time, directed his being proceeded against for the penalties *formerly* incurred, in the hope that I might have an opportunity of again committing him to gaol. The insinuation is worthy of Mr. Hall and his coadjutors; but would not be credited for a moment by any one acquainted with my character. But you, Sir, it would seem, act on *enlarged* and *liberal* principles, and in your ignorance of the accuser and the accused, for which, with so much propriety, you appear not unwilling to take credit, very naturally and consistently come to the conclusion, on the faith of a Botany Bay Editor, who had been legally convicted of a series of libels, (several of which were written while he was undergoing the sentence of the law,) that the Governor of the Colony had been guilty of every species of crime that could be conceived—of a series of outrages, which 'can scarcely be equalled in the annals of oppression of the most profligate Colonial Governments.' Now, Sir, ignorant as you profess to be of the respective individuals in this case, it would have been no more than common justice to have supposed, that the Governor was as pure as the Editor, and to have

suspended the declaration of your sentiments until you had ascertained whether the former was really the flagitious character the latter had represented him to be. This perhaps, in your estimation, would have been a waste of time, and you therefore considered it better (more just and equitable) to make your statements, and leave the Governor to *disprove* them if he could. You, Sir, may not find much difficulty in reconciling such a course to your ideas of justice, but the public will perhaps take a different view of the matter.

"The observations which immediately follow in the extract of your letter are so atrocious, that it appears impossible to conceive how a man in possession of his reason, could be so lost to all sense of justice, as, on the mere report of a newspaper, to have expressed himself to such an effect. I shall not suffer the contagion of your example to infect me, nor pollute my pen by commenting on such a scandalous effusion. It can excite but one general feeling of abhorrence and disgust, and will deservedly meet with the reprobation of every honest man.

"You are, Sir, so much in the habit of making assertions without any knowledge of the subject, or attention to facts, that the task of refuting them in detail would be a waste of time. But as the manner in which you have spoken of my conduct, leaves no doubt that you are equally ignorant of the state of the Colony, I shall insert here an extract from a letter which I have lately addressed to Lord Viscount Goderich, in order to prevent the public being any longer deceived by your assertions, and from which a judgment may be at once formed, whether your strictures on my conduct have been merited, or I have discharged my duty in a manner becoming the situation I held as Governor of New South Wales."

The Letter to Lord Goderich is too long for our limits, but affords the most satisfactory explanation of General Darling's administration in the cases referred to; and is further corroborated by farewell "Addresses" from the public bodies and principal inhabitants of the colony he is accused of having misgoverned.

TRAITS AND INCIDENTS, NAVAL AND MILITARY.

MITCHELL, THE PIRATE.

"WELL!" I said; "he is certainly a noble-looking fellow, if that be the famous Mitchell. I have read the Lives of the Buccaneers and most of the modern novels, where pirates are commended into generous cut-throats; but remember no hero of them all to compare to the picture of this fine fellow. Bulwer himself could scarcely have imagined a more magnificent villain."

This was about eighteen months since, when I was standing upon the wharf, observing the vessels that arrived with a fine breeze, and anchored in succession abreast of the city of Charleston, in South Carolina. A tall and most remarkable person approached the spot where I was standing, and where a single sailor within a few yards was similarly engaged in watching the vessels that were moving about the harbour. The stranger appeared to be in the prime of life, though somewhat weather-beaten, and his tall, erect, and singularly commanding person, with an inquiring eye, and an easy, sauntering manner, rendered him an object of instant attention. He was in the dress of a seafaring person, with a round jacket, the buttons of which displayed an anchor, and his flowing white trowsers and large Havannah hat induced me to suppose that he was a naval officer. He approached the sailor, and I overheard the following dialogue.

"Do you want a ship, my friend?"

"I don't know; where is she bound?"

"Oh! never mind where she's bound. I want six good men; and I'll give an advance of fifty dollars, and fifty dollars a month."

"She carries guns, I suppose?"

"Why, the guns are amongst the ballast, till she gets outside—you understand?"

"Yes; but I think I've seen you before. What's your name, if it's a fair question?"

"Mitchell is my name."

"Did you ever sail out of Baltimore?"

"Yes, I commanded a Columbian privateer out of Baltimore."

"So I thought. I know you very well, Mr. Mitchell:—you are a pirate. I got a ball through this left arm out of your schooner when we drove you off the James Taylor Indiaman. You stood off and on at the mouth of the Chesapeake for above a week waiting for her, and I was one of forty men that the owners sent down in a pilot-boat, to see her out of soundings. You had to up stick and run you know."

"Oh! I see you are a fool."

"Ah! you want six good men do you? Clear out you b——y villain."

Thereupon the tall stranger did sidle off, and disappeared round the bow of a vessel close by.

I then advanced to the sailor, and learned from him that this was the renowned Mitchell, who for years had carried terror to the remotest corners of the Gulph of Mexico. "He is in low water now," said the tar: "he has nothing left but a little fine toggery; and I expect he's trying to knock up another gang. He came over passenger in that sloop yonder from Nassau, New Providence, and I'll bet my soul he wants to run away with her; but I'll go and give them a hint."

I afterwards ascertained that Mitchell was a native of Belfast, of most respectable parentage; but of the intervening periods of his life, until his career of piracy commenced, I could learn nothing. He appears to have carried on his piratical operations upon the Gulph of Mexico, and passed through a variety of strange adventures, through all of which he is said to have preserved high notions of honour, and a gentlemanly manner of committing the most atrocious robberies. He was, indeed, the Robin Hood of the Gulph of Mexico. For a long period, he was encamped upon a rocky point of land, at the north-western extremity of the Island of Cuba, commanding a gang of eighteen men, amongst whom, though assisted only by a single lieutenant of a character for determination similar to his own, he is said to have maintained the most slavish submission to his will. He usually sallied out of his rocky hiding-place in a sixteen-oared boat, by the superior management of which, in calm weather, he could approach under the quarter of a vessel without danger from a single gun. Upon one occasion, Mitchell had received information that a certain vessel was loading in the harbour of Kingston, in Jamaica, for an English port: a seaman, who had come over to Cuba, delaring that he had seen the sum of ten thousand dollars in boxes stowed away in the bread-room. Knowing the time at which the brig would sail from Kingston, and, consequently, when she would round the north-western extremity of Cuba, a strict watch was kept for her appearance, and accordingly upon a calm evening, a little after sunset, a vessel with her marks was seen gliding along her course, about five miles from land. The sixteen-

oared boat was soon cutting through the sea, filled with twenty well-armed men, and a small swivel in the bow. The brig was rapidly neared, and Mitchell hailed her as follows:—

"Holloa! brig ——, ahoy; how do you do, Capt. ——?"

"Very well, Sir; I am obliged; but I have not the pleasure of knowing you, though you are quite correct in my name."

"I am Mr. Mitchell. Lower your boat, Captain, and I'll come on board, and take a glass of wine with you."

The boat was accordingly lowered, for the Captain of the brig now perceived that to fall in with the humour of his visitor, was the only chance of escape from a band of twenty well-armed pirates. Mitchell was accordingly conveyed above to the brig, and entered into easy conversation with the Captain.

"Well, Captain, what sort of a passage have you had from Kingston?"

"Oh! a tolerable passage. How have you been lately, Mr. Mitchell?"

"Very well, indeed; but we are rather short of money now about Cuba."

"Ah! every body is short of that; times never were so bad really."

"Well, I must just borrow those ten thousand dollars you have on board, Captain."

"My dear Sir, I have not ten thousand farthings in the whole brig."

"Oh, yes! now you have: they are in five boxes marked J. J., stowed away in the bread-room. Bear a hand, and let us heave it up, because it is growing dark, and my men will be up the brig's side to look for it, if you don't save them the trouble."

Upon this the boxes were speedily produced and lowered into the boat; Mitchell saying that he would walk into the cabin, and give the Captain a receipt for the money which he was so very kind as to lend him. He declared that he had a great respect for the Captain, and would be sorry that any inconvenience should befall him with his owners for lending the money to a friend, and, therefore, to clear him from blame, he wrote the following receipt.

"Off Cuba, ———, 18—.

"Received of Capt. ——, of the brig ——, the sum of ten thousand dollars, in five boxes, marked J. J., which I have not time to count, but do not doubt that it will prove correct."

"J. Mitchell."

He then, as if really concerned for the Captain, drew out a purse of one hundred guineas, which he offered to him, saying that it would be some recompense if he should lose his berth by this adventure; this the Captain refused as a favour to himself, but would be glad to reserve the money for his owners. Mitchell, however, would not consent, saying that he had no respect for owners, who were always insured above the mark; "but this watch," producing a most splendid one, "will, perhaps, suit you better than the money, Captain?" The Captain, however, would accept neither money nor watch, unless to be given up to his owners. Mitchell then shook hands with him, wishing the brig a pleasant passage, and stepping into the boat with the ten thousand dollars, was conveyed to his own party, who were waiting at a little distance; and after a gentlemanly gratuity to the sailors of the brig who rowed him, the sixteen-oared boat disappeared towards the shore, and the brig proceeded on her way.

Mitchell remained at his encampment upon the Island of Cuba till he had obtained, in adventures similar to the preceding, money sufficient to load the sixteen-oared boat to the water's edge, and then determined to leave off his piratical career, and pass into the United States: he now thought, however, that a boat-load of money, though a good fortune for himself, or even for himself and his lieutenant, would make a small figure when divided amongst the entire gang of twenty men. The Lieutenant was of the same opinion, and thought that on a calm day, Capt. Mitchell and himself might easily carry the sixteen-oared boat and the boxes of money to the Florida shore, without any assistance from the gang; and moreover it would be quite as well to cut off pursuit, lest these fellows, when disappointed of their share of the booty, should revenge themselves by turning evidence against them; "but on the other hand, dead men," said the Lieutenant, "tell no tales." The two officers then determined upon destroying the whole gang, and by ordering them in various detached parties for pretended purposes of bringing wood, water, and other supplies to the camp, Mitchell and the Lieutenant actually murdered them all. They then set off with the boat, and reached the coast of Florida, whence they coasted along to the Mississippi river, for the purpose of ascending to the city of New Orleans. Here, however, their golden dreams were suddenly dashed to pieces; for the strange appearance of a sixteen-oared boat, loaded with boxes, and navigated by only two hands, attracted observation from the banks of the river, and when Mitchell and the Lieutenant landed for supplies at a village a few miles below New Orleans, the boat was suddenly filled with a body of police, and the two worthies were glad to leave their ill-gotten treasure, and escape into the neighbouring woods. Mitchell was now pennyless again, and lurked for some time in the city of New Orleans, narrowly watched by the police, for his remarkable person rendered it difficult to conceal himself; but being secreted by women with whom he was connected, the exertions of the police to discover him were long unavailing. Upon one occasion, information was received that Mitchell was in the hut of a brown woman in the environs of the city, to which the police forthwith repaired, but not being covetous of an encounter with a man of his prowess, they determined upon discharging a volley of musketry into the house. Mitchell received a ball through his arm from this discharge, but before another volley could be sent in, he sprang out of the window, and escaped into the bush.

He next made his appearance at the town of Mobile, at which place he supported himself for some time by working in a sail-loft, a business at which, though probably not bred to it, he was said to be very expert, and soon opened as a sailmaker on his own account, marrying a young woman with money; and for two years he carried on a flourishing business in this line at Mobile. After that time, however, it became pretty generally known who the sailmaker was, and the merchants of Mobile, not knowing how secure their vessels might be against the machinations of such a man, or what associates might secretly be around him, determined upon withdrawing their support from him as a sailmaker, and in various other ways, to induce him to depart from the place. He was accordingly banished in this manner from Mobile, and passed over to the Bahama Islands, whence he had

come to Charleston in the sloop which the sailor pointed out. What his intentions there were appeared very plainly from his conversation on the wharf; but having occasion to leave Charleston on the following day, I never heard farther of his adventures. Expressing afterwards much surprise at the public appearance of this well-known piratical adventurer, I was informed that the extreme difficulty of procuring satisfactory evidence rendered prosecutions for piracy almost always unavailing, and that the passing of the Island of Cuba into the power of a great maritime nation, is the only effectual method of suppressing the desperadoes of the Gulph of Mexico.

H. F.

AN OCCURRENCE AT SEA.

In June, 1824, I embarked at Liverpool on board the Vibelia transport with the head-quarters of my regiment, which was proceeding to Halifax, Nova Scotia. Our passage across the Atlantic was smooth, though long and tedious. After passing over the great bank of Newfoundland, catching large quantities of codfish and halibut, and encountering the usual fogs, we were one morning about the end of July completely becalmed. All who have performed a voyage, know the feeling of listlessness to which a landsman abandons himself during a calm. The morning was slowly passed in looking around for appearances of a breeze—whistling for a wind, and the other idle pursuits usual on such occasions. Towards noon, a sailor from aloft pointed out to our observation a vessel at a distance, also of course becalmed. All eyes and glasses were immediately directed towards her, but she was too far off for the most experienced to determine whether she was English or foreign, man-of-war or merchantman. After a time it occurred to me, that it was a favourable opportunity for breaking in upon the monotony of the day. My influence with our Captain obtained permission for the small cutter to be lowered, but he would not allow a single seaman to leave the ship. I therefore became coxswain of the boat, and, accompanied by four of my brother officers as rowers, we pushed off, determined to pay a visit to the strange sail. To our landsmen's eyes and judgment, she had appeared to be about four miles from us, but we found ourselves very much out in our calculation—it was more than double that distance. The rowers, however, pulled on bravely—we neared the stranger, making her out to be a large American merchantman, and as we approached, we observed a number of persons on deck reconnoitring us through glasses. At length we were alongside, and I passed on board, followed by three of my companions, one remaining in charge of the boat. On reaching the deck, we found it crowded with men, who seemed to regard us with wondering looks. I stepped forward and was received by the Captain, who acquainted me that his vessel was the American ship Cadmus, on her passage from Havre-de-grace to New York, with General the Marquis de Lafayette and suite as passengers. A noble, venerable looking veteran advanced from the poop towards us, and offered his greetings with the courtesy of the old French school. He was Lafayette. My explanation of who we were, and of the motive of our visit, appeared to excite his surprise. That five officers of the land service, unaccompanied by a single sailor, should leave their vessel on

the open ocean, and from mere curiosity, visit a strange sail at such a distance, was, he declared, most extraordinary. He said they had observed our ship early in the morning—had been occupied (like ourselves) in vain endeavours to make us out—had remarked an object, a mere speck upon the sea, leave the vessel and move towards them, and when at length it was made out to be a boat, the probable cause of such a circumstance, had given rise to many surmises. I told him, in mitigation of what he deemed our rashness, that we were as a nation, so essentially maritime, that every man in England was more or less a sailor. At all events, I ventured to add, that if we had encountered some little risk, we had been amply repaid in seeing a man so celebrated, and of whom we had all heard and read. Our comrade being relieved by an American sailor in the care of the boat, we accepted the General's offer of refreshment, proceeded to the cabin, and passed a most agreeable hour. The fast approach of evening and appearances of a breeze springing up induced us to take leave. We separated from the old chief, not as the acquaintance of an hour, but with all the warmth—the grasp and pressure of hands—of old friends. As I parted from him at the gangway, he mentioned having caused a case of claret to be lowered into our boat, which he begged us to present to our Colonel and the other officers of our mess. We pulled cheerily back, but it was not until long after dark that we reached the "Vibelia," and which we perhaps could not have accomplished, but for their having exhibited blue lights every few minutes to point out her position. We found our comrades had been in great alarm for our safety. Various had been the surmises. That we had boarded a pirate, and been sacrificed, or made prisoners, was most prevalent, and a breeze was anxiously prayed for, that they might bear down, and release or revenge us. Half an hour after we returned to our ship, a light wind sprung up, which very shortly freshened into a gale, so that in the morning we had completely lost sight of the "Cadmus."

SUPERSTITION.

About the middle of the war which commenced in 1672, a party of French officers dressed as fiends, with horns, tails, and pitchforks, presented themselves at midnight on the glacis of Valenciennes, then garrisoned by a Spanish corps. The terrified guards abandoned the covert-way and sought shelter in the town. Closely the French pursued, and secured one of the gates before the portcullis could be lowered. The garrison fled at their approach and permitted them, without resistance, to occupy two of the bastions. Joined by a regiment of dragoons, Vauban, who commanded the party, took possession of what was then deemed the strongest fortress in Flanders.

At the siege of Zaragoza in 1709, the Conde del Pueblo, who commanded for King Charles, succeeded in persuading the garrison and the citizens, that the investing army consisted only of phantoms raised by enchantment. For several days the people continued under this delusion; nor were they undeceived till a party of them making a sortie, contrary to the orders of the Count, had their heads cut off by the French light horse.

It is not generally known that the capture of Missolonghi by the Egyptians was owing to the superstition of the Greeks. One of their augurs, looking through the blade bone of a newly-killed sheep, prog-

nosticated that all attempts to relieve it would be baffled. The Spezziote fleet immediately sailed away, leaving the brave Suliots to their fate.

That most remarkable of all superstitions, the belief that by spells men may be rendered ball and sabre proof, is, perhaps, even yet not altogether extinct. I have myself known a person, an excellent classical scholar, who believed that he could instantaneously stop the bleeding of the severest wound, by the repetition of a certain formula. He even asserted that he had succeeded when the usual applications had failed. On this point, for all on others he was not only rational, but intelligent, it was impossible to undeceive him. I do not think him capable of wilful deception, but I am convinced that in this particular he was deceived himself. The impressions of his childhood had been too deeply imprinted to be effaced by the studies of his maturer years.

REVIEWS AND CRITICAL NOTICES.

Equipment, Displacement, &c. of Ships of War.—By John Edye.

We cannot allow a month to elapse without noticing the appearance of this elaborate work, which will prove, we have no doubt, eminently useful to naval men. It forms a dictionary of calculations connected with the construction, dimensions, equipments, displacements, rates, complement, &c. &c., of each class of ship and vessel of war, from the first rate to the cutter, including the new classes, such as the London, Castor, Vernon, Rover, and Snake. This information is comprised in tables, furnishing at one view the complicated details which it has hitherto required time and research to collect and compare. We have only to wish that some explanatory letter-press had been added. The execution of these tables, and the nature and arrangement of the matter, reflect credit on Mr. Edye, with whom we cordially concur in describing this practical volume as "a work which will give to the sailor a thorough and scientific knowledge of the structure, powers, parts, qualities, uses, and contents (detail and aggregate) of his ship, and of every element and material in and belonging to her."

Works by Sir Howard Douglas.

Two important works by Sir Howard Douglas are on the eve of publication. The one is a Memoir on Naval Tactics, in which the various treatises and documents on the question of breaking the line are skilfully examined, and finally replied to; while the tactical operations involved in the discussion are treated with a degree of science and research, which will render this work of unusual professional interest. The other volume is a second edition of Sir Howard's Essay on Military Bridges, to which great and valuable additions have been made, so as to render it a work replete with sound and various information upon this important branch of military science. The essay is illustrated by a very beautiful engraving of the Roman bridge over the Tagus, at Alcantara, and by admirable plates relating to the subject.

History of Spain and Portugal. Vol. III.

In this volume, which is the thirty-second of the Cabinet Cyclopædia, the Histories of Navarre, of Aragon, and of Portugal are brought down to the beginning of the sixteenth century.

Life of the Duke of Wellington. Vol. II.

Major Sherer has at length completed, and ably completed, his difficult task of compressing the History of Wellington, and of the "Wars of

our Times," into the excellent epitome introduced in the series of the Cabinet Library. On the appearance of the first volume of the "Life of Wellington," we expressed our opinion of the difficulties with which the author had to contend in such an undertaking, and of his industry and success in overcoming the obstacles opposed by the very nature of his subject. We rejoice to see the work accomplished so creditably to the writer; and shall look forward with hope and confidence to future productions of a character still more suited to the peculiar style and genius of our gifted and amiable brother-soldier.

An Account of British India.

The 6th, 7th, and 8th volumes of the Edinburgh Cabinet Library contain an account of British India, upon a plan which embraces the physical, statistical, and political history of Hindostan. There is superadded some useful information on medical subjects connected with a residence in the East; and the work, which is both interesting and instructive, concludes with a paper by Captain Clarence Dalrymple, containing instructions of interest and value to the United Service respecting the voyage to India, and the present state of navigation between England and that country.

Sketches in India.—By Captain Mundy.

Excursions in India.—By Captain Skinner.

The Neilgherry Hills.—By Captain Harkness.

Our literature now abounds in works on India, in every branch of writing. We may choose from amidst this varied abundance wherewithal to gratify every taste, or to supply the cravings of scientific enquiry. In this intellectual campaign we are happy to find that the prowess and perseverance of the Services are conspicuous. From the deep research and historic gravity of Colonel Tod, the admirable sense and exquisite style of the biographer of Munro, or Colonel Galloway's laboured commentary upon the Law and Constitution of India, to which we shall take an opportunity of recurring, we turn to the lighter and not less palatable food, catered by Captains Mundy, Skinner, or Harkness—all three most agreeable writers upon the subjects their several tastes or opportunities have led them to treat.

The journals of the two former officers have much in common—though their styles differ, apparently in conformity with the peculiarities of individual temperament. Captain Mundy's Sketches are sparkling, sportive, and often sarcastic; while, from the circumstances under which he traversed India in the suite of Lord Combermere, to whom he was Aide-de-Camp, they partake more of the military character, and treat more of military details. The "Excursions" of Captain Skinner, distinguished by equal spirit, as well as a quick and close observation, are imbued with a more philosophic, or, in worldly phrase, sentimental tone, just sufficient to add greatly to the interest of the work, and quicken our sympathy for the author. Both journals, which do credit to their respective writers, are embellished with views, in which that of Captain Mundy, especially, abounds.

The neat volume of Captain Harkness, contains an intelligent and well-written description of the Tudas, an aboriginal race, inhabiting the summit of the Neilgherry Hills, on which a salubrious settlement has been lately established for the benefit of invalids, debilitated by the climate of the Indian plains.

Coleman's Mythology of the Hindoos.

This is a valuable work, comprehending the scattered elements of the Hindoo mythology, and comparing and connecting the system from its source through its various oriental ramifications. A second part describes, from the best and latest authorities, the mountain and inland tribes of India, with details of the countries they inhabit. The plates are characteristic and well-executed; and whether as a book of reference or study, the volume will prove a useful accession to Indian literature.

A Pilgrimage through Khuzistan and Persia, &c.

As we have the pleasure of claiming the author of these travels, Mr. Stocqueler, as a contributor, having published in a late number of this Journal his interesting details of Skyrznecki, which we find republished in these volumes, we have an additional motive for expressing the gratification we have derived from the perusal of his entire Journal. Having, on his overland journey from India, been compelled by circumstances to pursue a route through tracts hitherto "untrodden" by Europeans, bordering on the Persian Gulph, and including parts of the Chab country and the noble mountains of Bucktiari, Mr. Stocqueler has been induced to publish his observations and adventures, which are related in a manner equally intelligent, lively, and unaffected. His reception at Hanover was characteristic of the illustrious and amiable personages who preside over that kingdom, and whose courtesies are acknowledged by Mr. Stocqueler in a manner which does him credit.

The History of Charlemagne, By G. P. R. James, Esq.

A subject, of the highest interest and historical importance, has been treated with corresponding ability, judgment, and care. There is ample evidence throughout this valuable volume of the patient investigation bestowed by Mr. James on the materials of his History, and of the clearness and spirit with which he has embodied them. To the professions militant, the names of Charlemagne and his Paladins are talismans to chivalrous recollections; and "Roncesvalles' fight" loses nothing of its animating interest, as sketched by the pen of this popular writer. To the general student of history, the epoch of Charlemagne, cotemporary of our Alfred, is pregnant with instruction, as the dawn of European civilization.

This volume, which is embellished with curious Engravings, is the first of a series, designed to illustrate the History of France by the Lives of her Great Men.

Tales and Novels of Maria Edgeworth.

There is a charm in the very title; and we are delighted to find that these admirable productions are in course of publication in a complete and popular form. The first volume contains those richest and raciest of Miss Edgeworth's early efforts—Castle Rackrent, and the Essay on Irish Bulls. This series, which is neatly executed and embellished with capital engravings, deserves the success it is certain of meeting.

Adventures of Barney Mahony.

When we have said that this graphic and humorous tale is the production of Mr. Crofton Croker, we have shown cause why we recommend it, in these dull times, as an antidote to spleen or cholera.

A New Map of the Duchy of Savoy.—Wyld.

M. Paul Chaix of Geneva, tutor, we believe, to the family of the Duke of Richmond, has recently published a Map of Savoy and the neighbouring Valleys, with improvements suggested by a long personal acquaintance with the localities laid down. The alpine features of that magnificent region are boldly and clearly defined; and the rivers, roads, passes, and places are indicated with sufficient distinctness to render it available as a military map. For the use of the tourist, a pamphlet, containing a concise account of the Duchy, is added. We recommend this map both to officers and travellers.

Currents of the Ocean.

The friends of the late venerable Major Rennell, and the scientific world in general, will be gratified by learning that the great work on the Currents of the Ocean, to which he had devoted the last twenty years of his persevering and useful life, will appear in the course of the ensuing month, illustrated by five large charts and other engravings

---

Various other publications remain for early notice.

CORRESPONDENCE FROM THE PRINCIPAL PORTS AND STATIONS.

Portsmouth, 14th July, 1830.

Mr. Editor.—Instead of occupying your space with mere notices of the arrival and sailing of stray troop ships, government steamers, or yacht-club cutters, I shall take the liberty of imparting to you a little characteristic information that is specifically connected with this great sea-port and naval arsenal. All the world knows that each of the principal ports contains a considerable number of ships in ordinary, ready when required to start into the life and vigour of commission,—but how few, even of our naval men, could tell you, off-hand, even the number of ships in ordinary, still fewer the actual names of these ships. But surely this is a point of interest, and therefore I have taken some pains to collect not only the names and force of the ships in ordinary, but to arrange them in the order in which they lie at the moorings, specifying their different positions in this grand harbour. This list forms No. I. of the following tables.

No. II. gives the size, length, and weight of the mooring-chains lying on the bottom of the harbour, and also of the huge chain-bridles by which the ships in ordinary are attached to these chains. I have added a notice of the weight of the ingenious and admirable mooring-blocks, invented by the former master-attendant of this dock-yard, the late Mr. James Park, and which have entirely superseded the old mooring-anchors to which the chains lying along the bottom used to be fastened.

I have given a couple of slight sketches of this valuable contrivance. The saving to the country by this change has been very great; but neither the meritorious inventor nor his family ever yet received any reward, though assuredly well entitled to it; but I hope that justice may yet be done to my excellent friend's memory.

No. III. shows the weight of the three different kinds of anchors supplied to the different classes of his Majesty's ships.

No. IV. shows the dimensions and weight of the chain-cables allowed to each class of his Majesty's ships, and also their estimated comparative strength when placed by the side of hempen cables. It must be recollected, however, that while a hemp cable rapidly deteriorates with use, a chain, if anything, improves,—that is to say, it is tried, and its strength ascertained, without any sensible wear.

No. V. gives the present establishment of iron ballast which is put into his majesty's ships, with the dimensions and weight of the different kinds of kentlage, or bars of ballast, generally called pigs. The substitution of iron tanks for water casks has materially diminished the quantity of iron ballast.

No. VI. shows the cubic contents, the weight, and dimensions of the eight different forms and sizes of iron water-tanks now in use on board his Majesty's ships. It is difficult to say whether the chain cable or the iron tank be the greatest boon bestowed on the equipment of ships in modern times. The chain cable adds immensely to the security of the ships, while the iron tank contributes in a degree, which only old hands can understand, to the comfort and the efficiency of their crews.

No. VII. will make a shore-going fellow like you stare,—for I am sure you had not previously any conception of the number of copper sheets on a ship's bottom. I have given some details of this matter, in the case of the Prince Regent, to make your stare still wider.

No. VIII. is a double table. In the first part you will find a list of the artificers employed in the dock-yard. In the second, a list of the convicts, and the ships in which they are boarded and lodged. The people in the first part of the list are first-rate workmen, and as fine a body of hands as the country can produce,—hard-working, honest, loyal,—and they earn fairly and manfully their wages,—by no means high,—that is to say, they reproduce, by their labour, more to the country than it costs the country to hire their services. But who shall make out that the compulsory labour of the

others reproduces anything like a return for the sum expended in maintaining them? This, however, is a subject which it is not my intention to enter upon at present.

Of naval news, strictly so called, I have little to give you. The Orestes, Captain Glascock, sailed a few days ago to join the squadron under Sir Pulteney Malcolm. It gladdens one's professional eyes to see a ship in the same smart and truly man-of-war like order which it used, in former days, to be the pride of every officer to keep his ship. The Royal Sovereign, his Majesty's yacht, came into harbour the other day, and sailed again to-day. The Jupiter troop-ship, an old fifty gunner, has come to Spithead to receive on board the 14th regiment, intended for Ireland. The place of this corps is to be supplied by the depôt companies of the 7th, or Fusileers. The 33d have marched to Weedon, their place at Gosport being taken by the depôt companies of the 84th. A considerable body of marines and marine artillery is collecting here for the different divisions, but to what quarter of the globe they are destined to proceed, or when, or in what ships, appears not yet to be known to those whom it does not concern. The experimental squadron, as it is called, passed the Isle of Wight for the westward on the 13th. It consisted of the Donegal, Sir P. Malcolm, the Castor, the Tyne, the Orestes, and the Trinculo. Spithead, Cowes, and Portsmouth Harbour, are spangled over with beautiful yachts; and we have had one very interesting race between the Emerald, the Victory's Tender, and the Paddy from Cork, Mr. Beamish's cutter. The Paddy gained the day by one mile and a half in a distance of twelve leagues.

I remain your faithful correspondent,

OMEGA.

21st July, 1832.

P.S.—You may wish to know something of the proceedings of the experimental squadron, and as this is the head-quarters of naval information, you will naturally expect me to tell you what they have been about. The following notice you may depend upon as being strictly correct as far as it goes.

His Majesty's ships Donegal, Castor, Orestes, and Trinculo remained off Lowestoff for a few days, during which time it appeared, on various trials, that when it blew hard, with a head sea, the Donegal had the advantage, and behaved well,—and so, of course, she ought; but in moderate weather, whether going large or by the wind, she had no chance with her smaller competitors. The Castor, "on one mast," as it is called, sails uncommonly fast, but "on a wind" the Orestes held her own with her. The Trinculo has not behaved well, nor does she appear to sail as well as she did formerly. She was originally a brig,—then had three masts put in her, and now again is clipped down to a brig, with 16 instead of 18 guns,—and it would appear from those who knew her at the different periods, that she sailed faster six years ago than now.

The Nimrod is to join the squadron. She has been cut down, and it is thought will sail well. The Castor is in excellent order but wants hands. Captain Dick, of the Donegal, has gone to the hospital, at Plymouth; and his successor, it is said, will be either the admiral's nephew, Sir Thomas Pasley, or Captain Fanshawe. The cholera is now clear of the Castor, and all the squadron are healthy.

Sir Frederick Maitland has hoisted his flag here as Admiral-superintendant of the Dock-yard; and as he is an officer of great experience, activity, and remarkably good sense, we may rely upon his doing every justice to the appointment. Your readers will, no doubt, remember the singular mixture of discretion and of officerlike firmness, with good feeling and gentlemanlike kindness, with which he received Buonaparte. It is the easiest thing imaginable to look back and say "how simple and obvious!" but those who have been most exposed to difficulties in the course of their service afloat will be the first to admit that none but a master-mind could have steered so admirably clear of the embarrassments of that trying occasion.

No. I.

List of the Ships in Ordinary in Portsmouth Harbour in July, 1832, with the Numbers of the Moorings at which they lie, and the different parts of the Harbour in which they are distributed.

PORCHESTER LAKE.

No. of the Moorings.	Ships' Names.	REMARKS.
1	Boyne, 76	Moored with Mr. Park's blocks athwart the Lake. No. 1 is on the north side, and No. 37 on the south side. To No. 1 and 37 is one chain, No. 2 and 36, No. 3 and 35, & so on.
2	Head and stern moorings at the mouth of the Lake.	
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9	Hyperion, 42	Swinging moorings.
10	Laurel, 46	,, ,,
11	Amphitrite, 46	,, ,,
12	Minerva, 46	,, ,,
13	—	
14	—	
15	—	
16	—	
17	—	
18	—	These mooring chains
19	—	
20	—	are from 100 fathoms
21	—	
22	—	to 130 fathoms, ac-
23	—	
24	—	cording to the breadth
25	—	
26	—	of the Lake. The
27	—	
28	Apollo, 46	mooring blocks in this
29	—	
30	Galatea, 42	Lake weigh 6 tons,
31	—	
32	—	4 cwt., 3 qrs.
33	—	
34	—	
35	—	
36	—	
37	—	

FOUNTAIN LAKE.

1	Excellent, 58	In commission for the exercise of great guns.
2	Cressy, 50	The ships in this Lake are moored head and stern, and the mooring chains are from 50 to 60 fathoms. All the moorings in this Lake are attached to anchors, not to blocks.
4	Greenwich, 50	
5	Success, 28	
6	Sunk moorings.	
7	Part taken up.	
8	Sunk.	

WEST SHORE.

1	,, ,,	Sunk
2	York, and Alonzo	Prison ships
3	Victory, 104	Flag ship
4	Swiftsure	Receiving ship
5	Bucephalus	,, ,,
6	Immortalité	,, ,,

WEST SHORE.

No. of the Moorings.	Ships' Names.	REMARKS.
7	Podargus	,, ,,
8	,, ,,	Sunk
9	Victorious	Receiving ship
10	Prometheus	,, ,,
11	Mersey	,, ,,
12	Merlin	,, ,,
13	Royal George Yacht	King's Yacht
14	Prince	Ordinary depot
15	Hibernia, 120	In ordinary
16	Princess Charl.., 110	,, ,,
17	Bellerophon, 80	,, ,,
18	Marlborough, 74	,, ,,
19	Edinburgh, 74	,, ,,
20	Pembroke, 74	,, ,,
21	Benbow, 74	,, ,,
22	Carnatic, 74	,, ,,
23	Egmont, 74	,, ,,
24	,, ,,	This is buoyed
25	President, 52	,, ,,

These mooring blocks lie south and north; south block, 6 tons, 18 cwt. 1 qr.; north block, 5 tons, 15 cwt.

EAST SHORE.

26	,, ,,	Sunk
27	Fox, 46	In ordinary
28	Naiad, 46	,, ,,
29	Ajax, 74	,, ,,
30	Venerable, 74	Church ship
31	Herald, 10	In ordinary
32	Eden, 26	,, ,,
33	Barossa, 42	,, ,,
34	Illustrious, 74	,, ,,
35	Spartiate, 74	,, ,,
36	Prince Regent, 120	,, ,,
37	Nelson, 120	,, ,,
38	Prince George	Sheer hulk
39	Ganges, 84	In ordinary
40	Queen Charlotte, 108	,, ,,
41	Yard Craft	,, ,,
42	Blake	Receiving ship
43	Topaz	,, ,,
44	Emerald	,, ,,

FAREHAM LAKE.

1	Sirius, 46	In ordinary
2	,, ,,	Sunk
3	,, ,,	,, ,,
4	Trincomalee, 46	In ordinary
5	,, ,,	Sunk
6	,, ,,	Taken up
7	,, ,,	Head-fast disunited
8	,, ,,	Sunk
9	,, ,,	,, ,,

REMARKS.—Nos. 3 and 4 moorings on the West Shore are triangular moorings, and likewise Nos. 36, 38, 39, 40 and 42 on the East Shore. Almost all the receiving ships are moored head and stern.

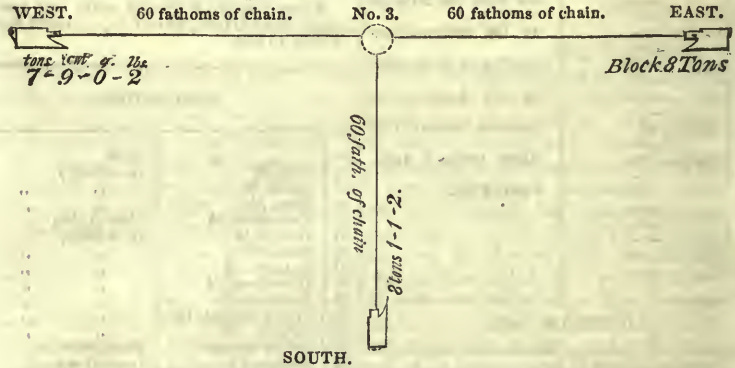
No. II.

Length, Size, and Weight, of the Mooring Chains used for Ships in Ordinary.

NAMES.	Size. Inches.	Length. Fathoms.	Weight. Cwt. qr. lbs.	REMARKS.
Mooring Chain	3¼ square	10	60 0 0	These mooring chains are united to any required length by means of shackles.
" "	3¼ "	10	50 0 0	
" "	3 "	10	40 0 0	
" Shackles for uniting	4 "	3 feet	5 1 0	
Bridle Pendants	3 round chain	7 fathoms	25 0 0	These bridle pendants are kept to the moorings.
Chain Bridles	2¼ round	5 fathoms	16 0 0	These bridles extend from the surface of the water to the bitts.
Bridle Shackles	3 diameter	1 ft. 6 in.	3 0 0	The proper length of bridles is ten fathoms.
Mooring Swivel	5 diameter	. . .	11 1 14	

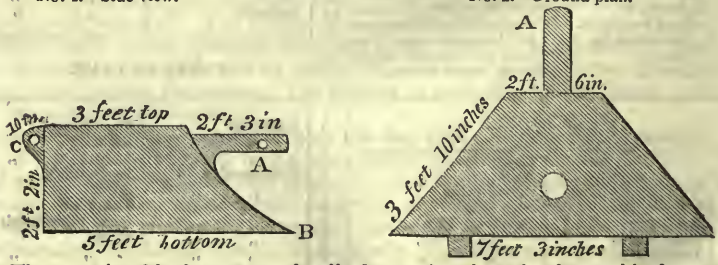
		tons.	cwt.	qrs.	lbs.	
Mooring Blocks		8	1	3	14	Sheerhulk, Q. Charlotte, Victory, Ganges, &c.
		7	2	0	0	
	South Block	6	18	1	0	Ships on the west shore.
	North Block	5	15	0	0	

Sketch of the triangular moorings, No. 3, at which H.M.S. Victory, bearing the Admiral's flag, rides in Portsmouth Harbour :—



This wood-cut shows the form of the mooring-blocks invented by the late Mr. Park, master-attendant of Portsmouth Dock-yard :—

No. 1.—Side view. No. 2.—Ground plan.



The mooring-blocks are nearly all of one size, but the heavy blocks are cast solid; the light ones are left partially hollow. The mooring-chain is shackled to the projecting piece A, and the greater the strain upon it the more the point or toe of the block buries itself in the mud.

No. III.

Weight of Anchors supplied to each Class of His Majesty's Ships.

SHIPS.		Bower Anchors.	Stream.	Kedge.
Rate.	Guns.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.
1st.	Three-Decked Ships from 98 to 120	90 to 95	21	10
2d.	80 and upwards	77 to 80	16	7
3d.	70 and less than 80 . . .	73 to 76	16	7
4th.	50 and less than 70 . . .	58 to 68	12	6
5th.	38 and less than 50 . . .	46 to 50	10	5
6th.	24 and less than 26 and 18 Gun Brigs	20 to 22	8	5

All rates are supplied with four bower anchors, one stream and one kedge anchor. One of the bowers is technically called the sheet-anchor, and another the spare-anchor.

No. IV.

Dimensions and Weight of the Chain-Cables used on board His Majesty's Ships.

RATE.	Inches in Diameter	Equal to Hemp Cables of	Weight of each Chain Cable of 100 fathoms in length.
	Inches.	Inches in Circumference.	Cwt.
First-Rate	2⅛	25 to 23	223
74 to 60 Guns	2	22 „ 21	200
50 Guns	1⅞	20 „ 18½	160
40 to 42 Guns	1¾	18 „ 17½	150
38 Guns	1⅝	17 „ 16½	135
28 Guns	1½	16 „ 15	112½
First-rate Stream and large Sloops	1⅜	14½ „ 14	96
74 Guns, Stream, and large Brigs	1¼	13½ „ 13	85
Frigates, Stream, Brigs 10 Guns	1⅛	12½ „ 11	64
Stream 600 Tons	1	10½ „ 10	50
Stream 500 Tons . . .	0⅞	9½ „ 9	40
Streams for large Brigs . .	0¾	8½ „ 7½	30
Small Craft	11-16ths	7 „ 6½	24
Ditto ditto	0⅝	6 „ 5	20
Ditto ditto	0½	4½ „ 4	14

N.B.—Each chain consists of eight lengths of twelve and a half fathoms long, united by shackles capable of removal in a moment.

No. V.

Establishment of Ballast for His Majesty's Ships.

SHIPS.	Rate.	Proportion.	REMARKS.
Ships of Three Decks	1st	1-8th part of their computed tonnage	Frigates built of fir to have half more than is allowed to those built of oak. Schooners and Cutters to have such quantity as may be thought best to suit them. The ballast of Ships fitted in wood or cement of 28 guns, having quarter-deck and forecastle, is to be reduced one-fifth of the established quantity, and in flush-decked Ships and Brigs one-third.
„ Two Decks	2d and 3d	1-10th part of their tonnage	
Large Frigates	4th	1-6th „ „	
Frigates	34 Guns	1-5th „ „	
„	32 „	„ „ „	
„	28 „	„ „ „	
„	26 „	„ „ „	
„	24 „	„ „ „	
Ship-Sloops	22 „	„ „ „	
„ „	20 „	„ „ „	
Brigs	18 „	1-7th „ „	
„	16 „	„ „ „	

NOTE.—The iron ballast is cast in bars or pigs, which vary in weight and dimensions as follows:—

									cwt.	qr.	lbs.
The pigs of 3 feet in length by 6 inches in width and depth, weigh									2	3	12
„	1½	„	„	6	„	and	4½	in depth, „	1	0	12
„	1 foot 5 in.	„	„	5½	„	„	4½	„ „	1	0	0
„	1	„	„	4½	„	„	4½	„ „	0	2	0

No. VI.

Contents, Weight, and Size of the Iron Water Tanks supplied to His Majesty's Ships.

Description of Tanks.	Imperial Gallons.		Old Measure Gals.		Weight.			Size.				
	Gallons.	Quarts.	Gallons.	Quarts.	Cwt.	qrs.	lbs.	Feet	In.	by	Feet	In.
Whole Tank	398	3	478	0	7	0	0	4	0	„	4	0
Long Large Half	199	1¼	239	0	4	3	0	4	0	„	2	0
Square Half	197	3	238	0	3	2	0	3	2	„	3	2
Quarter Square	98	3	119	0	2	0	24	3	2	„	1	7
Large Bilge	268	0	312	0	5	2	3	4	0	„	3	8
Small Bilge	110	0	132	0	2	2	20	3	2	„	2	6
„ „	110	0	132	0	2	2	20	2	6	„	3	2
Flat Half	188	0	218	0	4	0	0	4	0	„	2	0

N.B.—224 imperial galls. weigh one ton, and one gall. weighs ten pounds.

No. VII.

The Number of Sheets of Copper required to copper a Ship of each Class.

No. of Guns each class	100	98	74	64	50	38	36	32	Ships. Sloops.	Brigs. Large.	Brigs. Small.
No. of Sheets each Ship	3923	3609	3357	3018	2846	2291	2267	2230	2162	1089	850

It requires about eighty nails to each sheet.

Account of the Copper on the bottom of Prince Regent.

Size.	Number.	Cwt.	Qrs.	Lbs.	REMARKS.
Sheet copper, of 32 ounces to the square foot	1134	96	0	21	A sheet of copper is 4 feet in length, 14 inches in breadth; each square foot weighs either 32 ounces, or 28 ounces, according to its thickness. 100 sheets, of 32 ounces, is 8 cwt. 1 qr. 12 lbs.; 100 ditto of 28 ounces is 7 cwt. 1 qr. 9 lb.
Ditto ditto, of 28 ounces to the square foot	2789	211	2	18	
Nails counter-sunk	——	33	0	0	
Total number of sheets	3923	—	—	—	
Total weight	——	340	3	11	
	Or more than 17 tons.				

No. VIII.

List of Artificers employed in Portsmouth Dock-Yard in July, 1832.

Artificers employed in Portsmouth Dock Yard.	
OCCUPATION.	Number.
Shipwrights	713
—— Apprentices	57
Caulkers	79
—— Apprentices	8
Joiners	79
Blacksmiths	190
Sawyers	100
Millwrights	18
Whitesmiths & Engine-makers	50
Turners, Sawyers, and Block-makers at the Wood-Mills	23
Painters, Plumbers, & Glaziers	25
Braziers and Coppersmiths	3
Locksmiths	2
Shipwrights in the Pump-house	10
Metal Mills and Iron Foundry	52
Masons and Bricklayers	40
Ropemakers	92
Sailmakers	44
Riggers	54
—— Labourers	16
Scaveimen and Labourers	200
Total at work	1855

Prisoners, generally called Convicts.		
Names of the Hulks or Prison Ships.	Number of Prisoners.	REMARKS.
Leviathan, 74 guns, Convict Hulk	487	Alongside the Dock-yard.
York, 74 guns	540	At moorings, off Gosport.
Alonzo, and Sloop Racoon, 24 guns	50	Off Gosport, Hospital Ships.
Hardy, 10 guns	80	Off Tipnar.
Total number of Convicts	1157	

From six to seven hundred of these Prisoners are employed in the Dock-yard, Ordinary, &c. &c., the rest on Government works round the Garrison.

Devonport, 19th July.

My notices from this for the past month I am fearful you will find brief indeed. In the naval department there has been no stir, with the exception of the arrival, on the 16th ult., of Vice-Admiral Sir Pulteney Malcolm, and his small squadron, consisting of the Donegal, 74 (Flag Ship), Captain J. Dick; Castor, 36, Sir R. Grant; Orestes, 18, Commander Glascock; and Trinculo, 18, Commander Booth; the qualities of the Castor, up to her arrival at Plymouth, had mostly been on one point of sailing, and that was going free, when she had a decided advantage over the whole; the short time she was on a wind she had nothing to boast of. There are only two vessels fitting out in Hamoaze, the Champion and Cockatrice; the Procris will be paid off to-morrow, and there will remain the San Josef (Flag Ship), Leveret, between island and main, and Echo steamer in harbour. Nearly four hundred marines were embarked on board the squadron under Sir P. Malcolm, on the 18th, which sailed in the evening for Cork, having been joined by his Majesty's ship Nimrod, 18, Lord Edward Russell, leaving the Orestes to follow the next day with Captain Fanshawe, to take command of the Donegal, vice Dick, sent to sick quarters.

Arrived 6th July, his Majesty's steamer Meteor, Lieutenant Symons, and sailed again on the 9th for Falmouth, having on board 13,000*l.* for the next Barbadoes packet. The Meteor will take out the next mail for Malta, and it is supposed is intended to relieve the Alban steamer, Lieutenant Walker, at present stationed to carry the mails between the above place and Corfu.

Arrived 10th July, his Majesty's steamer Echo, Lieutenant Otway, from Lisbon and Falmouth.

Same evening, his Majesty's brig Leveret, Lieutenant Lapidge, from the squadron off Lisbon, bringing intelligence that Don Pedro's expedition had appeared off the Rock, and that his Majesty's ship Stag, Captain Sir Thomas Trowbridge, had fallen in with them soon after their sailing from the western islands, and had kept company with them to within sight of the Tagus, from whence we may hourly anticipate important intelligence.

Arrived 12th July, his Majesty's sloop Procris, 10, Commander W. Griffith, from the Mediterranean, and went up Hamoaze to be paid off on the 16th. His Majesty's ship Nimrod, Lord Edward Russell, went into the Sound from Hamoaze on the same day, and has since joined Sir P. Malcolm's squadron.

Sailed 11th July, his Majesty's troop-ship Jupiter, for Portsmouth, to take on board the 14th regiment for Cork. His Majesty's sloop Champion, which a short time ago returned from the West Indies, and was paid off at Devonport, has been re-commissioned by the Hon. A. Duncombe. Lieutenant W. L. Rees has commissioned his Majesty's schooner Cockatrice, to be employed as a packet between Rio Janeiro and Buenos Ayres. His Majesty's yacht Royal Sovereign, with Commodore Bullen on board, passed by Plymouth on the 17th, on her way to Milford.

The order which disentitled the widows of naval officers who married after the 31st December, 1830, to pensions, unless their late husbands had served on full pay ten years, has been altered to their late husbands having been ten years on the list of the commissioned or warrant officers. If the above order had not been rescinded, there are at this present moment many officers on the captains' and commanders' lists, who, in obtaining their rapid promotion, have not served one half that time on full pay. On the lieutenants' list alone, in the year 1815, upwards of 1000 mates and midshipmen were promoted, the greater part of whom, and many hundreds besides, have had no opportunity of getting on full-pay; the same with the masters, surgeons, and pursers. Therefore, if this subsequent order had not taken place, how many there are who, all hopes of employment having gone by, would have been prevented getting married!

In consequence of the increase of the cholera at Plymouth, the troops,

with the exception of the daily guard, are confined to their barracks in the citadel at Stonehouse, and Devonport. The last report, from the commencement (the beginning of this month), has been 169 cases, and 71 deaths.

July 19th—there remain in Hamoaze the San Josef, Champion, Cockatrice, and Echo steamer; between island and main, the Leveret.

ALPHA.

Milford Haven, 16th July, 1832.

Orders have been received at our Dock Yard to complete and launch the Royal William of 120 guns, which event will take place early in September. She has been upwards of ten years on the stocks, and is allowed to be as fine a model as any ship in his Majesty's navy. The Royal Sovereign, with Captain Bullen, R.N. Superintendent, will be here on the 20th, and the Royal George yacht, for repairs, is hourly expected. How very strange it is, there is no man-of-war stationed at this port!—till very lately there was always, at least, one king's ship on the station. The Ariadne, Captain Phillips, was the last, and she left here on the 28th February, 1831, since which the port and arsenal have been left entirely unprotected. Perhaps this paragraph may meet the eye of some one in office, and draw towards the subject a merited degree of attention. The following is a list of officers holding civil situations at this place:—Captain Pogern, Inspecting Commander; Captain Chappel, Agent for Packets; Captain Bouchier; Lieutenants George and Blacher, and Mr. Davies, Master at the Quarantine Establishment; the Cheerful, Lieutenant E. G. Palmer, and the Swallow, Lieutenant D. M'N. Beatly, are on the station for the prevention of smuggling.

Many of the assertions in the journals of the day, relative to the communication between England and the South of Ireland, may probably find credence, if it could be forgotten how truly interested the parties are who dictate them; for a newspaper published at Bristol would naturally advocate the propriety of forming a packet establishment as near that city as possible, which must materially benefit both it and the neighbourhood generally. The same insinuation may be thrown out against me were I thoughtlessly to take up the gauntlet so cavalierly flung down. I shall, then, content myself by stating a *few facts*, which must prove triumphant over a *host of speculative notions*. It has been clearly proved by H. Freeling, Esq., when examined on oath before the Committee of the Commons House of Parliament, now sitting on the question of the Anglo-Hibernian intercourse, that "the SHORTER *the distance of the* WATER *passage* between places, the more certainty there is of success." Hence why Dover, Holyhead, this Port, and others, are selected for correspondence with the opposite coasts; and even here, where the space between the shores is comparatively small, gales of wind not unfrequently suspend the connexion. What then, I ask, would it be if the water passage were increased, and the vessel have the Bristol channel to contend with in addition? Those who have seen the overwhelming sea produced in it by even half a gale of wind, and who know the rapidity and strength of the tides in that channel (the water rises between fifty and sixty feet in the six hours), must be aware and will readily subscribe to the fact, that the chance of success will be decreased in a tenfold proportion. What power must that engine possess to make headway against such a tide (flowing) and a westerly wind? 'Tis next to an impossibility to construct such a one, and however parties may *offer* to convey the mail at a reduced rate, yet that *offer* is but a speculation, and would, if attempted, "dissolve, and like the baseless fabric of a vision leave BUT a wreck behind." Experience would soon teach the fallacy of the scheme, and should the nation unthinkingly accept these terms, the error will be discovered when it is too late for remedy but by an enormous sacrifice of cash. These difficulties are

all avoided by the establishment remaining in this Port; for as soon as the packet is clear of the headlands there is but little tide (and that scarcely ever much acted on by the wind) to impede her progress.

Besides all this, considerable sums have already been laid out on the erection of a pier in this harbour for the accommodation of the Waterford packets. In fact, the major part of the estimate has been granted by parliament and expended; and surely that government, whose watch word is economy, will never suffer so much money to be thrown away uselessly, which it evidently will be if the work now in hand be not brought to a state of completion; for that part of the sea-wall yet under water will speedily be enveloped in mud if not carried up to its intended line of elevation.

The turnpike trust, too, has been at a great expense in forming a line of road to the said pier, which is complete to the extent of several miles—thoroughly complete—and wants only a run of coaches to make it what it is intended for and ought to be.

These particulars, and the circumstance that the station selected for the pier, &c. being peculiarly eligible by its reducing the *exposed* limits of *water* passage, as proved by the most eminent engineers, must confute all theory and speculation the friends to Bristol can bring forward.

NAUTICUS.

GENERAL CORRESPONDENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNITED SERVICE JOURNAL.

Nelson.

MR. EDITOR,—A fashion has of late arisen of depreciating the merits of those admirals, to whom Great Britain is indebted not only for her most brilliant naval victories, but for her very existence. In the leading article of the "Courier," for June 20th, the editor was pleased to make the following assertion:—"As to the authority of such men as Lord Nelson, it goes for nothing. He was, with all his transcendant bravery, a narrow-minded man in many things; and even Dr. Johnson, with an hundred times his reasoning powers, was the slave of many prejudices." It is not, however, to the editor of the Courier, whose exposition of Lord Nelson's "reasoning powers" shows that he does not comprehend his character, and whose observations might scarcely merit notice, that such remarks are confined; extraordinary as it may appear, naval men are not wanting who assert, "that Nelson was most fortunate, for he had no plans." The discussions on Lord Rodney's action have rung loud and long, and almost the only naval commander-in-chief whose memory appears to have escaped, is that of Lord Duncan, proceeding, perhaps, from his having a son who is known as a strict officer, and who being now high in office, may have kept his father's critics in check. Nelson has no son to support his fame—the more the pity, had he been worthy of such a father, the better perhaps; had he been inferior, and he could scarcely have been equal. Nelson's fame is, however, part, and a main part, of our professional property; and a naval officer might as well stand by and see his flag disgraced as hear Nelson's character attacked and not rise to defend it.

To speak of Lord Nelson merely for "transcendant bravery," is to insult his memory. He was not only the most brilliant hero, but the greatest, most skilful, naval commander that any age or country has produced. In the action off St. Vincent, which made Sir John Jervis an earl, whilst Nelson died *a viscᵗ* (see the inscription on his tomb)—he proved "that it made little difference who nominally commanded if he were present." His battles of the Nile and Copenhagen tell their own tales and need little remark, excepting, perhaps, that in the latter, as he got under weigh for battle and victory, the signal of recall being made by his senior admiral, he

is said to have put his glass (telescope) to the socket of the eye he had lost, and "did not see such signals!" In the chase of the French fleet to the West Indies, whereby the colonies were saved at a time when they were of vital importance to the commerce and resources of this country, whatever they may be now, who but Nelson could have judged their destination? or if any think they could, who but him would have acted on that judgment?

In his last, his greatest victory, when, after repeatedly having traced his country's honour with his blood, he sealed his own career of glory and Britain's safety with his death, his gallantry and judgment were alike displayed; having laid down his plan of action in England he proceeded forthwith to execute, and in a few weeks the combined fleets of France and Spain were annihilated, whilst Nelson died in the hour of the greatest victory ocean ever witnessed, or man ever achieved!!

His instructions to his captains previous to the battle of Trafalgar are said to be regarded by the French as a master-piece, and have established the present system of tactics. The enemy's line was to be broken at all points, from the third or fourth ship a-head of their centre to their rear, which being done, and to prevent the possibility of confusion from not seeing signals when in action, "No captain can do wrong who places his ship alongside an enemy." The simplicity of this plan may appear to be what some men have pronounced it, "no plan at all;" the answer to such men is, perfect plans are simple; inferior minds form intricate and imperfect arrangements.

An anecdote of his judgment, that might have puzzled Dr. Johnson's "reasoning powers," has been related by Southey, in the deserted vessel found off the Western islands; a further proof may be taken from Lord Collingwood's correspondence. The latter having been in command of the fleet off Cadiz for some time previous to Lord Nelson's joining, might be supposed to possess means of judging the enemy's intentions, and wrote a somewhat long, reasoning letter, the principal object of which was to show that the enemy were "*not* bound to the Mediterranean." Nelson's answer was—

"Victory, October 10th, 1805.

"You will receive the commissions and order as you desired. I think we are near enough; for, if the weather is fine, and we are in sight, they never will move; and should it turn bad, we may be forced into the Mediterranean, and thus leave them at liberty to go to the westward, although, at present, *I am sure the Mediterranean is their destination.*"

He saw and acted.—Nelson, the brave, the heroic Nelson, is known to all; not a child can lisp its mother's name, but that of Nelson soon follows: yet even this is not sufficient. He *should* be known as the deliverer of his country from those perils which threatened to overwhelm the whole civilized world, under the military despotism of Napoleon; and that, not merely by "transcendant bravery," but by talent, ability as much beyond the "reasoning power" of temporary declaimers, as his fame in all ages will soar above them.

Your obedient servant,

H. Lister Maw,

Lieutenant R. N.

Junior United Service Club, July, 1832.

Order of the Bath.

Mr. Editor,—The establishment of the Order of the Bath in classes was an excellent institution, and if properly restricted would be a great spur to officers of both services; but the late promotions and appointment have completely ruined the respectability of the Order.

At its commencement it could not have been better regulated than it was, for had it extended below field-officers and commanders, it would have been

difficult, indeed impossible, to have attended to all the claimants at the end of so long a war: the selection of officers was, however, far from being good; many were made commanders who never saw a shot fired in their lives, and I should think the first time the blushing riband was suspended round their necks, its deep tint must have been transfused into their cheeks: the choice of companions was, also, in many instances bad, and several were left out who had a real title to the distinction.

As it does not fall to the lot of all men to command in battle, those who had fought in inferior stations might have worn the Order, though contrary to the regulations, without a blush; but how, in the name of modesty, officers who had never been in action in their lives could put it on, I am at a loss to guess.

The Admiralty, in their wisdom, conferred the rank of commander on several captains, who had been knighted for their services, while others, equally deserving, but who had not been knighted, probably because they did not wish it, were only made companions. Jem Baker took a frigate after a most gallant action; Pat Campbell, in a sloop of war, ran alongside a French frigate, and brought her out of Dunkirk roads in a most masterly manner, and was always doing dashing things afterwards; Frederick Maitland's whole career in a frigate was enterprize, and he finished in securing Buonaparte; Bruce took a frigate, and also greatly distinguished himself in a sloop of war, as did several others lower down the list; yet they were only made companions: had it been put to the vote, I do not think there would have been a dissenting voice in the whole service: it is true that Baker and Maitland have since been advanced, but as they have been associated with others who had no right or title whatever to a step, the value of the distinction is diminished. In doing justice to Frederick Maitland, why was injustice done to Pat Campbell, his senior officer, serving in the Mediterranean with a broad pendant, having Maitland under his orders? It has been alledged that a minute was left at the Admiralty by the late Board to confer the first vacancy on him; but was there a minute to prefer some of the last who *did not* take frigates to Bruce and Campbell who did? Was there also a minute to confer the companionship on all the last batch, several of whom were highly entitled to it, while others would have found some difficulty in making out their own case? To mention names would be improper, but the service knows very well who are entitled and who are not: it is to be hoped the next vacancies will be given to those who deserve them. During the rule of the old Board of Admiralty, we were so much accustomed to corruption and jobs, that one more or less was little thought of; but such acts come very bad from a reforming administration.

When tardy justice is done to those officers I have mentioned, it is to be hoped promotion in the order will be at an end; for if officers are advanced by interest or seniority, the value of the order is gone: at present all those who are commanders and companions, with a few exceptions, are sufficiently rewarded, and there they ought to remain until they perform a service that entitles them to a step. At the beginning of a new war the Order ought to be thrown open to all classes of officers, and bestowed on those who particularly distinguish themselves; to substitute it for medals will neither give satisfaction nor answer the end proposed; medals should be given to commemorate general actions, as formerly, the Order of the Bath to distinguish individual merit. In a general action, a man with a ship a-head, and another a-stern of him, can hardly behave ill, and I give him no credit for doing his duty; but if he shows more judgment, talent, and courage, than anybody else, in addition to his medal he ought to receive the Order of the Bath. Algiers and Navarino show the folly of substituting it for medals; those officers who were companions went unrewarded, and those who were not, were decorated with the Order.

Captains performing dashing services against the enemy on the coast, officers in command of boats, and others particularly distinguishing them-

selves, ought to be rewarded with the Bath, and classed according to their rank and the brilliancy of the service performed, but it never ought to be substituted for promotion. Should it be thrown open as I have proposed, the third class would gradually fall into the hands of lieutenants and midshipmen, the second to captains and commanders, and the grand cross to admirals; but on no account whatever ought a commander of the Bath, promoted to the rank of admiral, or a companion to the rank of captain, be in consequence advanced in the Order, unless he had performed some service to entitle him to it; nor, at the same time, should a captain, if already a commander, on performing a brilliant service, be refused the grand cross, because he was not an admiral.

The decoration, I think, is bad. The companion should wear the cross round his neck, the commander should have the star in addition, which is now confined to admirals and generals; the grand cross alone should have the title: we have too many *Sirs*, which lowers the dignity of the grand cross; besides, a man's fortune may not be equal to the title, and if married, her ladyship with only one maid servant, and obliged to do a good deal about the house herself, does not work well: at all events it ought to be optional to be knighted, or to remain simply a commander of the Bath.

I have the honour to be,
Mr. Editor,
Your obedient servant,
a C. B.

Naval Architects.

Mr. Editor,—As the public utility of the School of Naval Architecture has recently been made a question of considerable importance by some of the most influential members of the legislature of this country, it may not, it is thought, be deemed obtrusive that a very enthusiastic lover of fair play, who desires to see this question fully discussed, should endeavour to throw some light on this subject.

In the first place then it will be allowed by all, that it is of exceeding importance to this maritime nation that its ships-of-war should in all respects be equal, and, if possible, superior to the ships-of-war of every other nation on the globe. It is accordingly necessary that the constructors of British ships should be, in all respects, as well qualified for the performance of the peculiar duties of their profession as any other naval constructors in the world.

It has long been universally admitted, that British shipbuilders have proved themselves lamentably inferior as constructors of ships, compared with the scientific naval constructors of France and other countries; and the notion that our shipbuilders, although confessedly incompetent in this respect, have been distinguished by the superiority and extent of their practical knowledge and experience in the mechanical department of shipbuilding, has been cherished by many with all the satisfaction of happy ignorance and conceit, as a consideration of great weight in the balance of a national comparison of qualification.

There appears, however, much reason for doubting, whether our merely practical shipbuilders have in reality so much to boast of as they have been apt to endeavour to persuade us. This presumption was put forth with, perhaps, greater eagerness than on any other occasion, just at the period of the formation of the School of Naval architecture; and the clamour then raised against this institution, and the opposition and discouragement, both direct and indirect, it has always hitherto had to endure, has been the natural consequence of the extraordinary notion that English shipbuilders

could by possibility be deficient of any knowledge which could be of use to them.

It was about this same period, however, that the practical superiority of our British shipbuilders was very seriously brought into question by the introduction of a new system of shipbuilding by Mr. (now Sir Robert) Seppings, Seppings. Never was a more palpable insult offered to the practical wisdom of our experienced ship-builders than the imputation cast on them by the adoption of these new methods. Practical men were completely astounded; they could by no means be persuaded that the art of shipbuilding in Great Britain, if not in France, had not already been brought to the last state of perfection. They therefore raised all the opposition in their power to these monstrous innovations; and so determined was their resistance, that Sir R. Seppings was constrained publicly to declare the dolorous fact, that he could not sleep soundly in consequence thereof. But after all the persevering efforts of those sturdy opponents of novelties in shipbuilding, they appear to have been obliged to acknowledge, in the pithy language of a late master-shipwright, that the "enemy" was too strong for them. The new plans were brought forth under the express sanction of the highest authority, their utility and excellence were put to the test in various ways; a full account of the advantages which would be obtained by them was given in a paper in the Philosophical Transactions; and the late Dr. Young, a philosopher of eminence, and Mons. Dupin, a distinguished French writer, added in lengthy dissertations their testimonies to the highly meritorious improvements of the British shipbuilder. All this was too much for men of practical knowledge and experience. Sir R. Seppings's plans, however much better or worse experience and practical wisdom silently adjudged them to be, than the old established methods for which they were substituted, rose triumphantly victorious over all the hostility arrayed against them. And it is sufficiently obvious, that our shipbuilders must have been incapable of comprehending the principles of the new system of shipbuilding, and of explaining satisfactorily the grounds of their opposition to it; a moderate acquaintance with the elementary part of the science of mechanics, and an adequate understanding of the principles of the old system of shipbuilding, would have been sufficient to enable any one to expose the fallacies of the new system of Sir R. Seppings, as explained in the Philosophical Transactions of 1814 and 1817.

The universal ignorance of our shipbuilders, not only of the theoretical principles of naval architecture but also of the science of mechanics,—a knowledge of which is indispensable to a thorough understanding of the principles of the art of shipbuilding,—has been an evil of very much greater importance than many persons have been accustomed to suppose, and one which has but too long been permitted to exist. If the only utility of the knowledge in question was to enable us to build ships to lie still in our harbours, ignorance such as that evinced by our practial shipbuilders might, perhaps, be tolerated; a trifling error, like that which has recently occurred in the construction of a steam-vessel for a particular purpose, designed to draw about four feet and a half water, but which it was found the water would not allow to swim at a less depth than six feet, might now and then be committed, without its being regarded as a matter of immense consequence; and some thousands of pounds per annum might be mis-spent in overloading our ships with timber and iron, making experimental masts, &c.; and this without occasioning the very deepest regret; and a School of Naval Architecture might also be considered an unnecessary establishment. But it has long been felt as an intolerable national grievance that our ships-of-war, which have cost such immense sums, have in general been,—and as no improvement of them has been effected they still must be,—decidedly inferior, in their most essential qualities, to similar vessels of other nations; and that, in consequence of such inferiority, our ships and fleets, both belligerent and commercial, have been, and it may

reasonably be expected they will again be, much more subject to annoyance or capture,—maugre the national superiority and bravery of our seamen,—than they ought to be. And to what is this circumstance, most melancholy for a lover of his country to reflect on, owing, but to the utter insufficiency of the knowledge possessed by our merely practical shipbuilders, to enable them to execute in a proper manner the important duties entrusted to them, when they have been placed in the highly responsible situation of Surveyor of the Navy.

It appears probable our present naval authorities have, on the ground of the incompetency of merely practical men to fill the office of Constructor and Surveyor of the Navy, resolved on the appointment of a naval captain, who has distinguished himself by the construction of the Columbine and Pantaloon; both of which have been found to be very fast-sailing vessels. This appointment, however, appears also to have been determined on, on the ground of the supposed incompetency of the individuals who have been educated at the School of Naval Architecture; not one of whom, it was reported as having been stated in the House of Commons, by a very high authority, has been found qualified to succeed Sir Robert Seppings. Had it been said that not one of the individuals in question had yet been appointed to the situation of master-shipwright, and that it had ever been unusual to select any one from an inferior station to fill the office of Surveyor of the Navy, no sort of umbrage could have been occasioned by such a statement. But to suppose that of eighteen individuals, selected at several public examinations of candidates, solely on account of their superior talents and qualifications, and educated afterwards at the feet of a Naval Architectural Gamaliel, not one should be found competent to fill the situation of Surveyor of the Navy, is, verily, a most preposterous supposition. If those individuals are thus incompetent, the money expended in their education—as was observed by Mr. Hume in the debate on Sir James Graham's bill for regulating the Civil Departments of the Navy,—has certainly been mis-spent; and not only should such an improper expenditure in future be prevented, but those who have had the control of the establishment which has occasioned such expense, should be rewarded with a censure commensurate with their dereliction of the duties imposed upon them.

It would doubtless have been a satisfaction to the members of the School of Naval Architecture, if the First Lord of the Admiralty had thought proper to make known from what source he had obtained this information respecting the incompetency of the eighteen naval architects. If it was obtained from persons interested in the depreciation of the utility of the School of Naval Architecture, who now possibly would be disposed to admit the competency of some one or other of these obnoxious naval architects to fill the situation of Surveyor of the Navy, if by so doing a possibility should be created of preferment to that situation again flowing in its accustomed channel,—it is not to be wondered at if Sir James Graham has been grossly misinformed. It is sufficient to assert on the behalf of these naval architects, that their competency or incompetency has never yet in any way whatever been put to the test. And it is accordingly not without reason they should be disposed to complain of so unfounded and invidious an imputation respecting their professional qualification, when no proof of incompetency has ever hitherto been produced.

The object of the writer, however, is not to advocate the cause of individuals, but rather the utility of a system of education, such as that which was established at the School of Naval Architecture in Portsmouth Yard, on the ground of the national importance of such knowledge. Whilst about a million sterling per annum is expended for the purpose of maintaining the existence of a sufficiently numerous and powerful navy, it is ardently to be desired that the ships which compose it should be constructed and built in the best manner possible. And can it for a moment be thought that im-

provement is so likely to be made, in the confessedly difficult science of naval architecture, by persons on a par, in respect of the knowledge they possess, with the operative shipwright, as by those who have acquired a complete education, both theoretical and practical, in every branch of this science.

It would be infinitely discreditable to us, as the first maritime nation of the world, if in a future war, a handful of an enemy's ships should be able to set the utmost efforts of our ships and fleets at defiance, and destroy or capture our merchantmen at discretion. But it is not to be supposed that the present enlightened naval authorities of this country, unfettered by the narrow prejudices which merely practical men are seldom devoid of, will not give all proper encouragement to the cultivation of the science of naval architecture, on which the maritime superiority of Great Britain materially depends.

I am, Mr. Editor,

Your humble servant,

X.

On the Dress and Messing of Regimental Officers.

Mr. Editor,—I wish to call the attention of those readers of your excellent Journal, who are better qualified and more conversant with them than myself, to certain matters nearly affecting the rights, interests, and comforts of regimental officers; which matters, notwithstanding all the orders issued from time to time upon the subject, do not appear to have been hitherto treated with that deliberate attention, considering the many individual interests concerned, which, in a practical point of view, their importance demands; and I shall do this with the hope that some hints or improvements may be suggested on the points in question by some of your intelligent correspondents. I allude to

1st. The present expensive fashion of regimental uniforms, appointments, and trappings, which are liable to undergo various, sometimes material, alterations, through the ever-changeful taste or caprice of commanding officers or other privileged connoisseurs in military cut and decoration. All this too is done at the sole expense of the wearer, without sufficient regard being had to his means of supporting the cost of it. In regulating the fashion of the dress and panoply, the points most essential to be attended to are, that nothing should be too expensive, too cumbersome, too ostentatious, too plain or mean. A discreet taste will choose that happy mean which is equally remote from gaudiness, or excessive decoration, and too much plainness; but, above all things, the expense of the whole should be kept fully within the pecuniary means of the wearer; that is to say, should be consistent with, or bear some analogy to, the rate of his pay. To a handsome uniform, abstractedly speaking, I have no sort of objection: but it is not to be supposed that any arguments can be rationally advanced in favour of any dress or equipage, however elegant or attractive, if it must be purchased and kept up at a cost which officers in general cannot afford to pay, in addition to their other expenses. The costliness and splendour of the British uniforms have often formed a subject for comment amongst foreigners. During one of our continental expeditions I remember once hearing a Dutchman, who had been attentively looking at some of our officers walking in one of the Dutch towns, make the following remark—"How very rich the English officers must be!" Being asked why he thought so, he replied, "Because, I perceive, they are all covered with gold and silver." I should think it would be no very difficult thing to effectuate a more general and decided approximation to uniformity in the dress and appointments of every regiment; at any rate, this might be done in point of economy. The colour of the facings and number of the regiment being quite sufficient to distinguish one corps from another, most of the other peculiar fashions and devices might be done

away with, except, perhaps, in the Scottish, Fusileer, and Rifle corps. In the national regiments it is no doubt politic to humour the innocent pride of national costume. The Highlander must at all risks preserve his ancient garb, but even in these corps the minor changes in fashion, and the glowing taste for costly outfit, mounting, and decoration, should be no less restrained; and they actually do require to be kept as much at least within the bounds of a proper and necessary economy as in the other regiments.

2. The second point I have to refer to is, the commonly extravagant system of the officer's mess. I allude to the heavy subscription of so many days' pay from each officer on entrance, chiefly for the purpose of accumulating costly articles of mess plate, showy but frangible services of china, glass, &c. on a scale, in a style, and of a description, more savouring of parade and display, than suited to the sober use, circumstances, and wants of officers of marching regiments, liable, as they ever must be, to the casualities of sudden marches, embarkations, and all their concomitant inconveniences and disadvantages. I allude to the hardship of an officer, who, after having largely contributed to his mess-fund, is shortly afterwards moved to another regiment, from no will, fault, or caprice of his own; is called upon for a fresh subscription towards the, perhaps, already overgrown mess-fund of the regiment to which he is removed. I allude also to heavy contributions which officers have to make for the sumptuous entertainment and rich banqueting of inspecting general officers, and others who are occasionally invited to partake of regimental festivities, in a style of hospitality almost princely.

3. The last point relates to the *bonâ-fide* appropriation of the mess-money, originally allowed by Government to cover the wine duties, and specially granted for the immediate benefit of the officers, since it is asserted that in certain regiments this money is, from whatever motive, diverted from its legitimate object, and is wholly or in part applied to purposes, however well intended, yet different from those for which the bounty was expressly and specifically intended by his late Majesty, by whom it was granted.

I remain, Mr. Editor, your constant reader,

April, 1832. H. P.

A Voice from St. Helena in defence of its Troops.

Mr. Editor,—In your Number for June last, you did me the favour to insert a paper I transmitted to you; and in perusing your Journal for the following month, my risible muscles were violently excited by a ridiculous reply to it from an "Old Bengal Lieutenant-Colonel." That gentleman appears to have derived all his information from hearsay, and particularly from a very "cognoscent friend," who knew as much about St. Helena affairs as the worthy Lieutenant-Colonel himself did. The old officer would have evinced more liberality had he taken pains to ascertain *facts*, before he dipped his pen in gall, to attack what he was ignorant of, or to vituperate statements which were true. The old gentleman, who (from his own *ipse dixit*) is so well acquainted with the pleasures of a "1500 miles march," (of course in his palanquin,) over the delightful plains of *dear* India, &c. "with only one servant, and that servant, alas! sick," *(Eheu jam satis!)* labours under a material error, when he alleges that "the St. Helena forces never see an enemy:" I must correct his mistake, and become a substitute for his "cognoscent friend," by affirming that our troops *have* been called into general service. They were at the taking of the Cape of Good Hope, in 1795, where they highly distinguished themselves, and justly acquired the approbation of their leader; they also participated in the capture of Monte Video and Buenos Ayres, in 1805, where they likewise obtained that meed of praise due to meritorious conduct; and although we are now receiving prize-money for those campaigns, and His Majesty's 24th regiment is permitted to bear on its banners the motto "Cape of Good Hope," and four other King's regiments, viz. 38th, 40th, 87th, and Rifle

brigade, the words "Monte Video," yet we remain without these flattering and distinguishing testimonies of service. The troops here, both artillery and infantry, are in such an effective state of discipline, as not only to be prepared for foreign service at a moment's warning, but they have elicited the well-deserved approbation of many a veteran general, in his sojourn here on his way to Europe. That such applause is honestly our due, I can unhesitatingly assert, as I feel convinced, that for cleanliness, subordination, and good discipline, our two little corps are surpassed by none. Notwithstanding the Old Lieutenant-Colonel's antipathy to the garrison of this "far-famed isle," yet he seems to have an itching, "longing, lingering" desire to become one of us; but as he must be well aware that he would be under the painful necessity of entering as a cadet, I fear grey hairs too plentifully besprinkle his honourable brow, to admit of "a consummation so devoutly to be wished." The excellent Lieutenant-Colonel's "cognoscent friend" has also misinformed him respecting our two corps being united; they are as unquestionably distinct and separate as the Royal Artillery and the line are, and the Governor *is Colonel* of the infantry only. The Old Lieutenant-Colonel ought to have manifested a more enlightened, a more generous feeling to brother officers, when he touched upon King's brevets. We were allowed King's commissions and brevets when the King's troops did duty here, and this boon would still have been granted to us from the Horse Guards, had not our honourable employers stated that they saw no necessity for it!!! We have had frequent occasions to sit on courts-martial to try soldiers of His Majesty's service, who had misbehaved on ship-board; and if a King's officer chanced to take his seat on such tribunal, (though he were a captain of 1826, or of any subsequent date,) he would supersede a veteran of 1808, *merely* because the latter, unfortunately, is deprived of the advantages of a King's commission or brevet, which all Company's officers in India enjoy. Further, why should any distinction in rank exist between the Company's officers here, and our brethren in arms in India, when, if war breaks out, we are as likely to be called into actual service as we have been heretofore, it being an incontrovertible fact, that the warm climate of St. Helena is a good seasoner for troops destined to take the field in the more fervid regions of India. One observation more, and I shall bid adieu to the old gentleman. He displays an unaccountable aversion to officers of our artillery receiving more pay than those of the other corps. The soldiers of the former, from the serjeant-major to the drummer, all receive considerably greater pay than those of the infantry; and as artillery officers in the British service, (King's as well as Company's,) from the more multifarious nature of their duties and acquirements, are allowed greater pay than those of the infantry regiments, surely it is an extreme hardship that the artillery officers of this establishment should be exceptions to a rule so general. Regretting that I have been compelled to take up so much of your time, and to occupy so great a space in your valuable Journal,

I remain, Sir,
Your well wisher and faithful servant,
MILES.

P.S. I almost forgot to state, that our troops here have the honour to wear royal facings: this fact, no doubt, will annoy the jealous "Old Lieutenant-Colonel" a little.

St. Helena, 26th November, 1831.

Distinctive Badges to Seamen.

MR. EDITOR,—Amongst the improvements introduced into the naval service by His Most Gracious Majesty when Lord High Admiral, there is one which, though in itself trifling and apparently unimportant, is in reality of great utility. I allude to the badge of distinction given to the petty offi-

cers, which not only tends to exalt their situation amongst their shipmates by the evidence of their rank, but from its simple neatness adorns the jacket of the seaman, and gives him a degree of pride in its display, acting as a stimulus to the private seaman to render himself the worthy object of advancement.

There can be no stronger proof of this than the promptness with which the badge is placed on the arm on a man's being raised to the petty rating, and the expense some of the quarter-masters and boatswains' mates have gone to in procuring the crown and anchor of gold twist manufacture, making it a really handsome ornament.

As the badge in this instance has had so good an effect, may not the principle be carried still farther with success, by giving to every seaman who has the honour to serve in His Majesty's navy, a distinctive mark also, say an anchor with a cable attached, on the left arm?

Should this suggestion meet the eye and approval of those who are our natural guardians, the order to adopt it would, I am confident, be received by the men with pride and satisfaction, and the consequences resulting therefrom would be important, various, and durable.

1st. It would give to the men of the royal navy a character in dress and uniformity of appearance, which must improve their general look, and give them a degree of pride in being distinguished from the merchant-seamen.

2nd. It would act as an inducement for young men to enter the service.

3rd. It would be a great preventive (particularly in foreign ports) against desertion, or against men straggling from their boats under the guise of merchant-seamen, as was the case frequently when watering, or performing any duty on shore in company with boats of transports, &c. No man could then pass any officer without his being detected by the badge as belonging to a King's ship; or should the badge be removed, the mark would still be evident, and would lead to the instant apprehension of the straggler.

It would also be a good distinctive mark for the men when doing duty as small-arm men on shore, on which service detachments may frequently be employed, as was the case during the last war, when it was always found necessary to give to the men so employed some badge to distinguish them.

If these remarks are deemed worthy of a place in your Journal, their insertion will oblige

AN OLD OFFICER.

April 19th, 1832.

Weapons of the Cavalry.

MR. EDITOR,—I remarked in your Journal for March 1832, on the subject "Arms for the Cavalry," in which it was stated that no body of cavalry, armed as at present, has the slightest chance of making any impression on a body of determined infantry armed with pikes. Permit me to state, that if cavalry are to attack a body of pikemen their arms need not be changed, (Mr. H. Ireton proposing that they should be changed,) as the cavalry would be able utterly to destroy the infantry with their fire-arms.

If you would be kind enough to insert this in your valuable Journal you would greatly oblige a constant reader, and

VERITATIS AMICUS.

Westminster, May 9th.

I observed in your Journal for April, on the subject "Dress and Equipment of Riflemen," by "ΙΩΤΑ," that the officers of the riflemen should be armed with targets, armed with a spike in the centre. Permit me to observe, that a target would not be of the slightest use, the officers seldom or never engaging hand to hand with the enemy, and only a random shot would happen to hit the target.

Depôt Appointments.

Mr. Editor,—On reference to the List of the Army for this month, I observe the name of Subalterns posted to the Recruiting Service in this country (Scotland) who have never been abroad, and who have held Depôt Staff Appointments for years together. Perhaps you can inform your readers how this happens; for the Adjutant-General has most fairly endeavoured to prevent abuses of this kind; and that when an officer has been in the enjoyment of a staff appointment of depôt, he should when, his time is up, go out to his corps before any other officer, and particularly in cases where the one has never been abroad, and the officer called upon to go in his place happens to be a man who can boast of long foreign service.

I am Sir, your most obedient,

Berwick-on-Tweed, May 14th. Anti-Humbug.

Attack of Streets.

Mr. Editor,—Allow me to suggest a very obvious means of overcoming resistance when offered as on late occasions, at Paris and Brussels, from windows and housetops. The attempt to force a street which is barricaded, and thus defended, must always cost many lives, and may frequently fail, even with the best troops. I would, therefore, suggest that three or four muskets be applied to the lock of the first street door, which will be sure to open it, and let the troops make their way to the roof, and after capturing or destroying all they may find there, let them cross the party wall and proceed to the next. A party of about twenty men on each side the street, thus acting as flankers, would in many cases succeed entirely with very trifling loss, particularly as, at first, the defenders would be taken by surprise by such a simple method of proceeding. Yours, &c.

H.

Forage and Travelling Allowances of Field-Officers commanding Depôts.

Mr. Editor,—Allow me, through the medium of your valuable Journal, to call the attention of the Secretary at War to the hard situation of Field Officers of infantry in Ireland, more especially those who are in the command of depôts. In compliance with a General Order, all detachments, however distant they may be, are to be visited twice in each month by a field-officer of the regiment by which they may be furnished; the situation of a field-officer commanding a depôt is, in this instance, one of peculiar hardship, as he is only allowed forage for one horse, and has not the same advantages as a Lieutenant-Colonel commanding a regiment, who has the assistance of the majors of his regiment. I know a field-officer, commanding a depôt at present in Ireland, who has to visit two detachments of the regiment in opposite directions, and having thus to ride a distance amounting to one hundred and twelve Irish miles, twice in the month, and I believe his is not a solitary or even an unfrequent instance. I think, therefore, the Secretary at War ought, in common justice, either to allow forage for two horses, or, in cases of this unparalleled personal expense, the travelling allowance of ninepence per mile.

I have the honour to be,
Sir,
Your obedient Servant,

Portsmouth, 19th June, 1832. H. K. S.

EDITOR'S PORTFOLIO;

OR

NAVAL AND MILITARY REGISTER.

AFFAIRS AT HOME AND ABROAD.

The Scotch Reform Bill has passed both Houses of Parliament, and received the Royal Assent. The Bill for Ireland has passed the House of Commons, and is in progress through the Lords.

The revived prevalence of cholera has excited an alarm in the country, hardly justified, in our judgment, by its effects. The disease is more easily evaded by simple precautions, and its presence scarcely appears more fatal than the malignant epidemics which commonly infest this country at the present season. It is the suddenness and isolation of its attacks, which, probably, create dismay; but in almost every case the seizure can be traced to local or constitutional causes. We are happy to add, that the ravages of this disease have not extended to the United Service, owing, no doubt, to the superior cleanliness and systematic habits of those bodies.

The expedition under Don Pedro, which had been collected at the Western Islands, has at length reached the shores of Portugal, and effected a landing near Oporto, of which city it took possession, without any serious opposition. The troops of Don Miguel, with the authorities, retired before the invading force to the opposite shore of the Douro, it is stated, according to a concerted plan. They were followed across the river by a portion of the invaders; but though the landing took place about the 8th of June, up to the moment at which we write, no authentic information has been received of the further progress of Don Pedro; nor does it appear that any outburst of popular feeling, or accession of numbers, had attended his debarkation.

Court of Inquiry at Weedon.—A Military Court of Inquiry has been directed to assemble at Weedon barracks, for the investigation of certain complaints preferred, through irregular channels, by a private of the Scotch Greys, named Somerville, against his immediate commanding officer. The factious and unconstitutional interference which has been permitted in this case will, it is to be feared, have a most injurious effect upon the service.

The statement that the above soldier has been discharged, at the instance of those illegal societies by which he appears to have been seduced from his proper duties, is, of course, unfounded. The system of holding out a premium to misconduct has not been adopted in the army.

Review of the two Regiments of Life Guards.—The two regiments of Life Guards were, on Monday, the 23d ult., inspected on Wormwood Scrubs by Lord Hill, and were put through a variety of evolutions in brigade on the newly-proposed system, by the Hon. Colonel Ed Lygon.

Since the alterations of Sir H. Torrens in the movements of in-

fantry, and which were said to have been suggested by the experience of the late war, we have been advocates for a revision of the formations and movements for the cavalry, in order that they might be assimilated with those for that arm which decidedly forms the basis of all armies. But in the new regulations, which are said to be compiled from the respective systems of the late, and of the present Inspector-General of Cavalry, although there is much to be admired, many excellent improvements made, and many absurdities dispensed with, tactical errors of some consequence are still to be found. These discrepancies, together with other details connected with the subject, we intend to treat of on some future and more suitable occasion: for the present we shall merely observe, in reference to the review above alluded to, that, probably from want of sufficient practice and *ensemble* in the new manœuvres, the effect of the field-day was not such as to prepossess the spectators with a favorable impression of the "proposed regulations for the instruction, formations, and movements of the cavalry."

NAVAL AND MILITARY LIBRARY AND MUSEUM.—The following contributions have been received during the past month.

MODEL ROOM.

John Taaffe, Esq. late Master Shipwright at Bermuda.—Model of a Cutter's Rudder, fitted with a groove in the stern post.

Sir Robert Seppings, F.R.S., &c.—Model of a First-rate Ship of War, similar to his Majesty's ship Caledonia, by a quarter-inch scale; one longitudinal section, showing the method of building in practice previous to the introduction of the new system (the circular stern) by Sir Robert Seppings, the other longitudinal section in accordance with that principle.

"This system was first partially introduced in strengthening the Glenmore, of 36 guns, at Plymouth, in 1800, and fully put into practice in the Tremendous, 74 guns, which ship was rebuilt at Chatham in 1811, and it was generally adopted in the British Navy in the year 1815."—*Notice accompanying the Model.*

LIBRARY.

Sir Robert Seppings, F.R.S., &c.—On a new principle of Constructing his Majesty's Ships of War, by Sir Robert Seppings, 4to. pamphlet, 1814; On the Great Strength given to Ships of War by the application of Diagonal Braces, by Sir Robert Seppings, 4to. pamphlet, 1818; On a new principle of Constructing Ships in the Mercantile Navy, by Sir Robert Seppings, 4to. pamphlet, 1820; A Letter addressed to the Right Hon. Viscount Melville on the Circular Sterns of Ships of War, by Sir Robert Seppings, 4to. pamphlet, 1822.

Lieut.-Col. Forster, h. p. 24th Regt.—Tableau des Guerres de Frederick le Grand, 1 vol.

John Taaffe, Esq. late Master Shipwright at Bermuda.—Sutherland on Ship Building, 2d ed. 1 vol. folio, 1740.

Capt. Joseph O'Brien, R.N.—A Fac-simile of the Death Warrant issued against the unfortunate Charles (framed).

Lady Collier.—A Book, in Arabic, presented by his Highness the Imaum of Muscat to Capt. Sir Francis Collier, C.B. when commanding his Majesty's ship Liverpool, 7th August, 1821; an Hindostanee MS. written on leaves of a tree.

Mr. George Imiay.—An Essay on Taste, by Alexander Gerard, D.D. 1 vol. 12mo. 1764; Werner's Formation of Veins, 1 vol. 8vo. 1809; Stenography, by Weston, 1 vol. 8vo. 1748; Cunningham's Bills of Exchange, 1 vol. 8vo. 1778; Della Scienza del Cuore, by Lorenzo Martini, 1 vol. 12mo. 1829; M. T. Ciceronis Rhetorico, 1 vol. 8vo. 1761; M. T. Ciceronis Epistolarum, 1 vol. 12mo. 1783; M. T. Ciceronis Orationum, 1 vol. 12mo. 1792; Machina Dell' Uomo, 1 vol. 8vo. 1826; Cabanis, Certitude de la Médecine, 1 vol. 8vo. 1819; Cornaro Della Vita Sobria, 1 vol. 12mo. 1826; Della Lingua Punica (presentemente usata du Maltesi, &c.), by Fra Sestio Angelo Dericard, 1 vol. 12mo. 1750; Zenophontis de Cyri Expeditione, by Thomas Hutchinson, A.M. 1 vol. 8vo. 1813; Tratado de Vendages y Apositos, by Don Francisco Caniveli, 1 vol. 8vo. 1784; Jasolino de Rimedi d'Ischia, 1 vol. 8vo. 1688; Spadafora Prosodia Italiana, 2 vols. 12mo. 1791; Crasso Elogii di Capitani Illustri, 1 vol. 4to. 1693.

Capt. Moody, late 4th Regt.—Wars of Prince Eugene and Marlborough, 1 vol. 4to. 1742; Lawrence on the Horse, 1 vol. 4to. 1809; Hazlitt's Lectures on the Literature of the Age of Elizabeth, 1 vol. 8vo. 1821; Arrowsmith's Map of the Pyrenees.

Capt. Geo. W. Manby, F.R.S. Barrack-master of North Yarmouth.—Description of Instruments, Apparatus, and means of Saving Persons from Drowning who break through the Ice, &c. by Capt. Geo. W. Manby, pamphlet, 1832; On the most efficacious means of Preserving the Lives of Shipwrecked Sailors, and the Prevention of Shipwreck, by Capt. Geo. W. Manby, pamphlet, 1830; On the Extinction and Prevention of Destructive Fires, with the Description of Apparatus for Rescuing Persons from Houses enveloped in Flames, by Capt. Geo. W. Manby, pamphlet, 1830.

Capt. J. A. Griffiths, R.N.—Impressment fully considered, with a view to its gradual abolition, 1 vol. 8vo. 1826.

Lieut.-Gen. J. Lindenthal, K.C.—Saldern Tactick, 1 vol. 8vo. Frankfort, 1781; Antoni Artillerie im Kriege, 1 vol. 8vo. Dresden, 1782; Kriege Bibliothef, 2 vols. 4to. Brislau, 1759.

Lieut. George Pawley, h. p. Murray's Re-

cruiting Corps.—History of the Seven Years' War in Germany, translated from the German and French, by Capt. Charles Hamilton Smith, the first and only volume published, 4to.

MUSEUM.

Capt. Talbot, R.N. of his Majesty's ship, Warspite.—A box containing Skins of a variety of Birds from the Brazils.

Nicholas Garry, Esq. Deputy-Governor of the Hudson Bay Company.—Two Esquimaux Canoes, with the Fishing Gear, &c.

Maj.-Gen. Hardwicke.—A Short Sword, with curiously carved Ivory Handle, taken in the Palace of the King of Candy in 1815; a Crescent-shaped Dagger, found on the person of one of the Malays who assassinated Mr. Parry, the East India Company's resident at Bencoolen, in the year 1815.

Lady Barry.—A specimen of the Caruera Chica, or Indian Pigment; a Fecula, obtained from the leaves of a Climbing Bignolia, by the Tarumas and other Inland Tribes of Guiana, and the Rio Negro; a specimen of Mica, from the head of the river Reponony, Guiana; a specimen of Talc, from the Oronoco; a sample of the Dust which fell on the ships' decks sixty leagues to windward of Barbadoes, ten or twelve hours after the bursting forth of Mount Souffriere, on the 1st of May, 1812; a specimen of Agate; some small round Stones, called Indian Shot, found on the Savannahs at the head of the river Reponony; seed of a Tree used by the natives of Guiana as beads; some Poisoned Arrows of the Makossi Indians.

John Taaffe, Esq. late Master Shipwright at Bermuda.—A Spanish Dollar, supposed date, 1369.

Lieut. Peter Brooke, R.N.—Sixty-seven Silver, and seventy-four Copper Roman Coins; also several specimens of Organic Remains from the neighbourhood of East Bridgford, Nottinghamshire (the Roman Margidunum).

Commander R. Copeland, R.N.—Six Cases containing Antique Vases, &c. from the Mediterranean.

Capt. John Smyth, Royal Engineers.—Some Nests of the Termites (Wood Ant), taken from between the frame-work of a wooden building at Demarara; one Geological specimen, locality, &c. illegible.

Commander John Chamberlayne, R.N.—A Seal-skin Dress, complete, as worn by the Esquimaux of the Labrador coast, in their canoes when fishing.

Staff-Surgeon William Halket, M.D.—Two cases containing Petrifactions, and specimens of the Coral from Antigua.

Lady Collier.—A Chinese Mariner's Compass.

Capt. Protheroe, h. p. 56th Regt.—Preserved specimens of the Minura Superba, male and female, in a mahogany and glass case.

Lieut.-Col. Childers, C. B. 11th Drs.—Preserved Head of the Serow or Imo, from the Himalaya Mountains; Skull of the Camel.

John Machin, Esq.—Four Figures representing the Hottentot Tribe in their Native Costume, with their Implements of War, &c. (two males and two females).

Commander Skinner, R.N.—Horn of the Narwal, and a South Sea Island Club.

ROYAL NAVAL SCHOOL.—The following resolution was passed at a Meeting of the Council of Management, on the 10th ultimo:—

"That the sum of 3000*l.* out of the disposable funds of the institution be at once assigned to form a fund for erecting and furnishing a suitable building, and that there be added to this fund, all such sums as may be received on 25*l.* Nomination Debentures, and 10*l.* Entrance fees; also, that an appeal be made to the Public by Advertisement or otherwise; and that the President be requested to communicate this Resolution to such Departments of His Majesty's Government as he may think most likely to assist in the furtherance of this most important object. That circulars be also printed and distributed, in order to obtain contributions, on which a statement of the Building Fund shall be made."

Measures are now in progress to build the school, upon land granted by the crown, near Greenwich.

PRESENTATION OF A NEW STAND OF COLOURS TO THE 39TH REGIMENT.—The 16th of May, the anniversary of the Battle of Albuera, on which occasion the 39th Regiment performed conspicuous service, was selected as an appropriate occasion for presenting them with a New Stand of Colours, at Sydney, New South Wales, their present quarter; the ceremony being performed by the then Governor, Lieutenant-General Darling. Accordingly, on the morning of that day, all the beauty and fashion of the town and its vicinity were in motion to witness the imposing spectacle; among whom the Lady of the late Governor occupied a conspicuous position.

His Excellency was received with demonstrations of respect by the assembled multitude, and on arriving in front of the Regiment, the soldiers presented arms, the band striking up the National Anthem.

The Regiment having been formed into three sides of a square and in

open order, the fourth being completed by the officers of the other Regiments in garrison, and the ladies present—the usual ceremony of consecration was performed by the Venerable the Archdeacon, who at its termination delivered an appropriate prayer, composed by himself for the occasion.

During the consecration, the New Colours were held by Lieut.-Colonel Shadforth, of the 57th, and Lieut.-Colonel Despard, of the 17th Regiment, standing in front of the centre. Colonel Lindesay, C.B., the Lieut.-Col. of the 39th, then called the two senior Ensigns of the Regiment (Ensign C.B. Lloyd, and Ensign L. Maule) to the front; the old Colours fell back to the rear, and were put away by the Colour Serjeants. Lieut.-General Darling then advanced, presented the New Colours to the officers above-mentioned, and addressed the Regiment as follows:—

"Thirty-Ninth,—it is highly gratifying to me to present you, on the part of your Colonel, with these Colours, henceforth the proud record of your gallant and distinguished services.

"It is unnecessary for me, 39th, to emblazon your achievements—your friends will ever remember, and your enemies will never forget, that during the Peninsular War, which, in its results, was as glorious to the British Arms as it was important to the general interests of Europe; you, led on by your present gallant Commander, fought at Albuera (of which battle this is the 20th aniversary); that you were also engaged with and defeated the enemy at Vittoria, at the Pyrenees, the Nivelle, the Nive, and at Orthes. You have, indeed, 39th, nobly redeemed the pledge which your predecessors in arms first gave at the battle of Almanza, now a hundred and twenty years ago, which was as admirably seconded in the glorious field of Plassey, as it was successfully followed up at the memorable defence of Gibraltar.

"Soldiers, it is not necessary to the fame of your corps, that you should augment the honours which it has so gallantly acquired; but I am sure, whenever your King and Country shall require your services, you will add fresh laurels to the noble wreath which now so proudly adorns your banners.

"Gentlemen, in addressing you more particularly, to whom this sacred trust, the immediate charge of these Colours, is more especially confided, I need only point out that they will be the objects to which the eyes of your corps will be directed—you will protect them with your lives—and may the Almighty, who alone can shield you in the day of battle, guide and preserve you in the faithful discharge of this sacred duty."

Colonel Lindesay replied nearly in the following terms:—

"In the name of the Officers and Soldiers of the 39th Regiment, I return most sincere thanks for the distinguished honour your Excellency and the Venerable the Archdeacon have conferred on us this day.

"The handsome manner in which the services of the corps have been noticed, must be truly gratifying to us all, and I am sure we shall always entertain the most grateful recollection of it.

"The Colours which are this day presented will, I hope, by whatever officers they may be supported, sustain at their hands the same honour which former ones have, I trust, conspicuously maintained."

The ranks then closed, and the line having been re-formed on the centre, the Regiment broke into open columns, marched past, and saluted the General in slow time and review order, and afterwards in quick time: then wheeled into line on the original ground, and opened ranks.

The drummer's call being beat on the right, the Ensigns, with the Colours, moved from the centre of the line to the front of the Grenadiers, under a general salute from the Regiment, and were then escorted by the Grenadier Company; attended by the band and drums to the Commanding Officer's quarters, and there lodged the Colours with the usual honours.

SURRENDER OF ST. JEAN D'ACRE.—The army, which it will be recollected sailed from Egypt several months ago under the command of Ibrahim Pacha, son of Mehemed Ali, Viceroy of Egypt, in order to lay siege to the above fortress, commanded by the rebel Abdallah Pacha, have at length succeeded in their enterprise. On the 27th May, the Commander-in-chief made a general assault upon the fortress. His soldiers were met with great bravery by the besieged. A detachment destined for the breach of Kapon Bourdfon having experienced some resistance, they showed symptoms of hesitation, and appeared for an instant to draw back. The Commander-in-chief, on perceiving it, drew his sabre, and, threatening vengeance on such as should retreat, he pushed on the soldiers, making them take position in the breach. The line of reinforcement joined them, and whilst one party repulsed the enemy, another constructed an entrenchment.—In the afternoon the besieged surrendered, and a deputation composed of a few artillery officers, headed by the Mufti and Iman of Abdallah Pacha, issued from the place of refuge occupied by the vanquished, and walked towards the Commander-in-chief, throwing themselves at his feet, and imploring clemency. The Commander-in-chief immediately pardoned them, guaranteeing the safety of their lives and property, without even requiring their arms. Abdallah having expressed a desire to proceed to Egypt, was allowed to embark, accompanied by Selim Bey. On the 2nd of June he arrived off Alexandria, where he was received by the Viceroy of Egypt with great honours.

CHANGES IN THE STATIONS OF CORPS SINCE OUR LAST.—

1st Life Guards from Windsor to Regent's Park.

2d Life Guards from Regent's Park to Hyde Park.

The Horse Guards from Hyde Park to Windsor.

6th Dragoon Guards from Cahir to Dublin.

6th Dragoons from Longford to Cahir.

10th Hussars from Dublin to Longford.

17th Dragoons from Ballencollig to Dublin, and to Gloucester.

2d Battalion Grenadier Guards from Dublin to Portman Street.

3d Battalion Grenadier Guards from Portman Street to the Tower.

1st Battalion Coldstream Guards from Westminster to Knightsbridge.

2d Battalion Coldstream Guards from the Tower to Dublin.

2d Battalion Scots Fusilier Guards from Knightsbridge to Windsor.

7th Foot, Reserve Companies, from Bristol to Gosport.

27th Foot from Limerick to Fermoy.

33d Foot from Portsmouth to Weedon.

35th Foot from Northampton to Weedon.

81st Foot from Bolton to Dublin.

85th Foot from Blackburn to Dublin.

88th Foot, Reserve Companies, from Landguard Fort to Chatham.

90th Foot from Glasgow to Belfast.

91st Foot from Manchester to Dublin, and to Mullingar.

92d Foot from Limerick to Fermoy.

GENERAL ORDERS, CIRCULARS, &c.

NAVY.

CIRCULAR.

Admiralty, 2d July, 1832.

DESCRIPTION of the SWORD BELTS to be in future Worn over the Coat by Commissioned Officers of the Royal Navy, and by other Officers ranking with Commissioned Officers.

Admirals.—Blue Morocco Leather, lined, full one inch and half wide in the Girdle; single, *one inch wide*, Sword slings or carriages:—the whole embroidered in Gold with Oak leaves and Acorns down the middle, and margined with a straight line near each edge:—Gilt mountings with circular fronts, two inches diameter, Laurel embossed edges, Crown, Anchor, and Laurel in the centre:—embossed Carriage Buckles, plain Girdle Buckles and Rings, the latter one inch and 3-4ths diameter in the centre, plain Studs under the carriage buckles for the more easily attaching and

detaching the Sword—a plain strong Hook attached to the Ring to suspend the Sword short.

Captains and Commanders.—Black Morocco Leather, lined, same dimensions as above, embroidered in Gold, with three straight lines, one down the middle and at each margin near the edge:—Gilt mountings with circular fronts, with embossed Laurel edges, Crown and Anchor in the centre; plain Carriage and Girdle Buckles, with Studs under the latter as above, and plain Gilt Ring and Hook.

Lieutenants, and Officers ranking with them.—Black Morocco Leather, lined, same dimensions as above, embroidered in Gold, with a straight line near each edge:—Gilt mountings, &c. the same as the Captains.

Admirals undress Belts.—Black Patent Leather, full one inch and half wide in the Girdle—Single, *one inch wide*, Sword slings or carriages:—Gilt mountings with circular fronts, two inches in diameter; Laurel embossed edges, Crown, Anchor, and Laurel in the centre; plain Carriage Buckles and Rings, the latter 1 and 3-4ths inches in the clear; plain Studs under the carriage buckles for the more easily attaching and detaching the Sword, thereby superseding the use of swivels—a plain strong Hook attached to the Ring to suspend the Sword short.

Captains and Commanders.—As above, but with the Crown and Anchor only in the centre of the ornament, as in the Dress Belt.

Lieutenants, &c.—The same as Captains in all respects.

By Command of their Lordships,

GEORGE ELLIOT.

PRIZE MONEY.

PRIZES ADVERTISED FOR PAYMENT IN THE LONDON GAZETTES, AS REPORTED TO THE TREASURER OF THE NAVY, DOWN TO THE 18TH OF JUNE, 1832.

Bacchante, for four French Gun-boats and Stores, at Fort St. George, in the Bocca de Cattaro, capt. 12 Oct. 13.—Pay 22nd June.—Agt. William Slade, 21, Cecil-street, Strand.

Castor, for L'Hereux, Head-money, capt. 14 Jan. 14.—Pay 30th May.—Agts. W. and E. Chard, 3, Clifford's Inn.

Curley, for Paragon, Head-money, capt. 13 Aug. 13.—Pay 30th May.—Agts. ditto.

Dryad and her Tender, Black Joke, for Primeira, capt. 22 Feb. 31.—Pay on arrival.—Agts. F. M. Ommanney and Son, for Mw. King, 22, Norfolk-street, Strand.

Ditto, for El Marinereto, capt. 25 April, 31.—Pay on arrival.—Agts. ditto.

Harpy, for Joshua, capt. between 28th Oct. and 6th Nov. 30.—Pay 27th March.—Agt. John Hinxman, 72, Great Russell-street, Bloomsbury.

North Star, for Toninho, capt. 18 June, 27.—Pay 24th May.—Agt. ditto.

Ditto, for Terceira, Rosalia, capt. 20 April, 28.—Pay ditto.—Agt. ditto.

Ditto, for Sociedade, capt. 8 Aug. 28.—Pay ditto.—Agt. ditto.

Ditto, for L'Aigle, or Fox, capt. 27 Sept. 28.—Pay ditto.—Agt. ditto.

Ditto, for Estrella de Mar, capt. 28 Oct. 28.—Pay ditto.—Agt. ditto.

Nymph, for Paragon, Head-money, capt. 13 Aug. 13.—Pay 30th May.—Agts. W. and E. Chard, 3, Clifford's Inn.

Sparrowhawk, for Joshua, capt. between 28th Oct. and 6th Nov. 30.—Pay 27th March.—Agt. John Hinxman, 72, Great Russell-street, Bloomsbury.

Saracen, for four French Gun-boats and Stores, at Fort St. George, in the Bocca de Cattaro, capt. 12 Oct. 13.—Pay 22nd June.—Agt. Wm. Slade, 21, Cecil-street, Strand.

Acasta and Ceres, for L'Espérance, capt. 1 May, 28.—Pay 4th Nov. 31. Pronounced to have been a vessel of war, and to have had on board 60 men.

Ceres, for Spanish National Schooner or Gun-boat, name unknown, capt. 8 Feb. 98.—Pay 21st Jan. 32.—Ditto 60 men.

Sparrow Cutter, for La Resolue, capt. 30 June, 97.—Pay 4th July, 31.—Ditto 55 men.

Ditto, for Resource, capt. ditto.—Pay ditto.—Ditto 85 men.

Tartar, for La Resolue, capt. ditto—Pay ditto.—Ditto 55 men.

Ditto, for Resource, capt. ditto.—Pay ditto.—Ditto 85 men.

Trent, for Spanish National Schooner or Gun-boat, name unknown, capt. 8 Feb. 98.—Pay 21st Jan. 32.—Ditto 50 men.

ABSTRACT OF PARLIAMENTARY PROCEEDINGS CONNECTED WITH THE NAVY AND ARMY*.

HOUSE OF COMMONS, APRIL 2.

And now, Sir, I have come to that portion of my observations when I cannot help much lamenting that the Right Honourable Baronet, the late Secretary-at-War, is not in his place. Owing to his absence, I shall not be able to say so much as I certainly should have said had he been present. And in those remarks which I cannot help making, I shall endeavour to

* Continued from p. 420.

substitute the phrase of the "War-Office," instead of that of "the Right Honourable Baronet." I took an opportunity, last year, of expressing my disapprobation of old soldiers being indiscriminately allowed, by a War-Office circular, in reply to their applications, to take a sum of money for their annual pension: the result of which, in many instances, has been, that the money paid has been squandered in public-houses, instead of being employed for the purpose of conveying the men to the colonies. There is no class of men so reckless or so thoughtless as these old soldiers; and I think that it would not have cost the War-Office much inquiry, to have foreseen what would be the effect of the temptation so imprudently held out to these persons. As I have already stated, the result is, that many of these old men are in a state of absolute destitution, and 300 or 400 men have, in all probability, been thrown upon their parishes for relief; which could not have been the case, if the Government had not allowed them to make this commutation of their pensions, or had done it more cautiously; for, according to Mr. Sturges Bourne's Act, if any soldier comes to the parish for relief, that parish immediately has a claim on his pension. What, then, is the general effect of this War-Office circular? For the sake of being able to introduce to the House a smaller Army Estimate, the parishes of England have been burdened in the most unwise manner; and a general feeling of discontent and dissatisfaction is felt in the army. Nor can it be said that this has been done without due warning; for so long ago as last year, I entreated the late Secretary-at-War to take other, and more advisable steps. His Majesty's Government does not seem to have paid attention to the truth of this proposition,—that a system may, theoretically, look very well upon paper, but work very ill in practice: such has been the case here. Besides, Sir, I wish to ask by what right, or on what authority is it, that the Secretary-at-War issues a circular order, depriving the soldier of those advantages which have been granted to him by his Majesty's Regulation, approved and signed by the King? In the event of the soldier becoming a settler, according to the 46th article of the Regulation, it is provided, that when grants of land, in addition to a free discharge, can be made in the colonies, the precise terms of the grant shall be clearly explained to the soldier before he receives his discharge; and that when he shall have been residing three months on his grant, and have been actively employed in clearing the ground, a quarter's pension, at 6*d.* a-day, shall be paid to him, which amount may be renewed from time to time, at the discretion of the Governor of the province, provided that, in the whole, it does not exceed one year's. The propriety of that Regulation has been corroborated by the Lieutenant-Governor of Upper Canada; for, in a letter from Sir John Colborne to me, dated April, 1830, he says—

"I am persuaded that the soldier should be encouraged to purchase his discharge. A careful man in this province might save money; his place may be supplied by a recruit for 10*l.*, and if he has 10*l.* to start with, he will do very well. The deserters here are disgracefully numerous; but if encouragement was held out to the soldiers to settle, I am persuaded that the men would stop, for it would not be worth their while to run the risk of deserting, if a prospect was held out to them of obtaining their discharge."

This opinion was confirmed by a letter from the Assistant-Adjutant-General of Lower Canada; and if this indulgence, if this aid of 6*d.* a-day, was thought necessary to enable a discharged soldier to live before the fruits of his labour could be reaped, why was it refused to the older and more infirm soldier, who, by selling his vested right, had not only a better claim, but had a greater necessity from his age to this relief? And now, Sir, let me ask, what has taken place? After entering my protest last year against the plan of the late Secretary-at-War, I find on the 21st of June, 1831, a letter from the War-Office, in which it is stated, that no soldier is to go from this country to the colonies with a promise of land. In addition to which, this letter does not contain one word relative to the allowance of 6*d.* a-day, to which I attach the greatest importance; so that it appears that the regulations of the late Secretary-at-War are not only contrary to those of his predecessors, in this respect, but entirely loses sight of the promise made in the name of his Majesty, that additional advantages shall be allowed to the soldier in the event of his becoming a settler. I can assure the House, that what I am now stating is no new opinion of mine. In a letter which I addressed to my Right Honourable Friend, the late Chancellor of the Exchequer, in May, 1830, I state—

"I cannot commute the pensions, because it is difficult to secure the parish; for as the law now stands, if the pensioner becomes a pauper, the parish is entitled to receive his pension."

And in another letter to the late Secretary for the Colonies, dated June, 1830, I state the same thing; besides which the same argument was made use of by me last year in this House; and I, therefore, contend that the Government has now no right to

complain of my bringing this question forward. I shall now show Honourable Gentlemen that I have abundant proof of the ill effects of these commutations; for instance, seventy-eight pensioners were to have gone by the *Hebe* to Quebec; the vessel, however, sailed without them, and the captain received 459*l.* forfeit-money,—the men having refused to embark; on board another vessel, the *Mint*, 102 pensioners were to have embarked; the captain, in that instance, received 450*l.* forfeit. The captain of the *Science*, bound for Australia, received, in the same way, 200*l.* forfeit. The captain of the *Sovereign*, 120*l.* In short, without troubling the House with further details, I am able to state that this avaricious speed on the part of the Government has been the means of putting about 1500*l.* in the pockets of various captains, and of leaving about 400 or 500 men in a state of extreme destitution; indeed, I understand already that thirty or forty parishes have made application to Chelsea Hospital, and that the answer given has been, that the men have sold their pensions, and have no further claim.

In order that I might not be proceeding on vague grounds, I have made some inquiries with respect to my former regiment, and I will take the liberty of stating to the House the cases of some of those who have foolishly acceded to the delusive offers of the War-Office. One case is that of a man of the name of Bowling, who was discharged for consumption. This man did not embark; he has expended every farthing of the money, and he is now in a state of ruin. Another man was utterly unfit for emigration, for he had a diseased leg, and a contracted arm; another man blind; another man had lost his leg. Another case is that of William Gray, of the Grenadier Guards, who was discharged for defective sight in 1821, and who is fifty-eight years of age.

In my opinion the extreme age for emigration is forty-five; but I understand that the Government has allowed 700 men to emigrate who are past fifty, 100 past sixty, 6 or 7 at past seventy, and actually 1 at past eighty years of age. Let me, however, go back to the case of Gray; he has a wife and four children; he received 22*l.* for his pension; he was to pay 12*l.* 5*s.* for his passage, that money was forfeited because his wife refused to go. The man himself, afterwards, was willing to go, but the War-Office would not let him emigrate, unless his wife went with him. Subsequently the woman, believing that she had ruined her husband and her children, attempted to destroy herself. At present adversity has broken her desire to remain in her own country, and she and her husband are ready to go; but now the War-Office says, "Yes, you may go, but you must find the 12*l.* which was forfeited to the captain." Is this the way in which British soldiers, after twenty years' service, ought to be treated? This man, Gray, bore an excellent character. I know that he served in the Peninsula, and I believe that he served in Flanders. Surely, then, the War-Office will do well to re-consider this case, as well as many others, more especially as the men may be made to refund by only allowing them half pensions, till the commutation money advanced to them is refunded, by which means the public will lose nothing. I am not surprised that men who, in war, are ready for the forlorn hope, or for any desperate service, reckless of consequences, should, in peace, be ready to emigrate. But what I ask is, ought the War-Office to have been a party to this plan? Ought not the War-Office to have taken further and better precautions in favour of the old soldier? I protest against such a proceeding on the part of the army; it is a proceeding which cannot redound to the honour of Government; it is unjust towards the parishes; it is discreditable to the Ministry; it is converting the War-Office to a broker's office, to drive hard bargains with old soldiers; and it is highly injurious to the character, the spirit, and the best interests of the King's service.

I have no further observations with which to trouble the House, except to state that I intend to call for returns which will prove the statement I have made, after which I shall probably move some resolutions declaratory of what I think ought to be the sentiments of the House on the subject; or, if I should be beaten in that, and that other steps to remedy this mischievous system be not adopted by the Government, I shall move for leave to bring in a Bill to replace these men in the position in which they were before this commutation was allowed.

Sir John Hobhouse regretted the absence of the late Secretary-at-War, who was much better able than he to give an answer to the statement just made.

As the Gallant Officer did give notice of his intention, and as that notice was placed on the Orders of the House, I should have thought that it must have been obvious to my predecessor, that he would be the fittest person to give an answer to the remarks that would arise upon this notice. However, as the Honourable Baronet is not here to answer for himself, I must endeavour to say a few words on the subject. In the first place, I beg to say that I am as deeply impressed as the Gallant Officer can be of

the great importance of attending to the well-being of the army; and though I have not like him had the good fortune of rendering service in that capacity to the country, yet no man can have a stronger feeling of the merit of the army in the field, or of the necessity of making proper provision for it out of the field. I do not know that it will be necessary for me to make much allusion to the different warrants to which the Gallant Officer has alluded. With respect to the two first parts of his own warrant of 1829, I believe that no doubt can be entertained as to their utility; but, with respect to the third part, I may be allowed to say,—more especially as the Gallant Officer has himself alluded to a difference of opinion on the subject,—that it appears extremely questionable, whether that part of the warrant is founded on a system likely to prove economical to the public purse.

The question is as to the saving which arises from granting a reduced pension at twenty-one years, instead of waiting until after twenty-four years' service. The chance of getting rid of pensioners at the period of life at which soldiers are discharged—and I must say that I am extremely sorry to speak on the subject in this almost inhuman manner—is not sufficiently great to make it worth while, on that account, to make the difference between the twenty-one years and twenty-four years' service. I am, however, by no means quite clear as to the result of the inquiry that is going on on this subject; but if, on looking to the facts of the case, it should appear that the public are not gainers, a change will be made. I know that an opinion at present obtains in the War-Office, that it is doubtful whether this part of the plan of the Right Honourable Gentleman is so beneficial to the public as it was at first thought it would be. I am ready to admit that for some time it was found advantageous; but I am now sorry to be obliged to observe, that recently there has been a considerable increase in the pension-list, which has been imputed to the operation of the regulation of the Right Honourable and Gallant Officer. The number of pensions, in the latter part of 1831, does not nearly tally with the number as quoted by the Right Honourable Gentleman, as having been granted in that year. I admit that, in the first half year of 1831, as compared with previous years, there had been a decrease; but in the latter part of the year there was a great increase. In the first six months of that year, 527 pensions were granted; in the latter half year 1484, making a total of 2021, which greatly exceeds the number stated by the Right Honourable Baronet. I should conceive that the Right Honourable Gentleman made his calculations in the first six months.

Sir Henry Hardinge.—I took the average of the five years previous to my going into office; and I then took the period after this regulation was in force, including as much of 1831 as I had the Returns for.

Sir John Hobhouse.—I believe that the Returns for the latter part of the year were not furnished until very recently. After this preliminary statement, I feel it necessary to allude more particularly to some of the observations that fell from the Right Honourable Gentleman. In the first place, with respect to the commutation of the pensions of the veterans, which has been so much dwelt on by the Right Honourable Gentleman, I do not quite understand how he has arrived at the numbers. The Returns at the War-Office are only 1581.

Sir Henry Hardinge.—Is Ireland included?

Sir John Hobhouse.—I believe that Ireland is included. The Right Honourable Gentleman, however, said that the number amounted to 2000.

Sir Henry Hardinge.—I believe, if the Right Honourable Gentleman will refer to the Noble Lord the Paymaster of the Forces, he will find that upwards of 2000 of the pensions of these veterans have been commuted, and paid by the Commissioners of Chelsea Hospital. Indeed, I believe the true number is 2300; but as I wished to be within the mark, I said 2000.

Sir John Hobhouse.—From the documents which I have before me, this appears to me much more than the number actually commuted. At any rate, I believe many of those persons were anxious to avail themselves of this, and they were allowed to do so. I believe, indeed, that the Colonial Office were not prepared to take more at that time. I admit that it is to be lamented that the commutation money was given to those men, as many of them made a most improper use of it, and, instead of going to the colony, they wasted it in profligacy and dissipation. It should, however, be taken into consideration, that men brought from all parts to the immediate vicinity of London—and more especially soldiers released from the check of strict control—were not likely to be the most strict in their conduct. I am aware, also, that many bad men, who would take advantage of anything, availed themselves of this arrangement to act in the manner described by the Right Honourable Gentleman. I believe several of these men escaped from the ships when on the point of sailing, and there is no doubt, as stated by the Right Honourable and Gallant Offi-

cer, that when their money was expended, they became chargeable to their parishes. If the circumstances should turn out as described, I do not deny that the Government ought to do something; at the same time, from the information received at the War-Office, I have no reason to believe that the number of pensioners who have become chargeable to the parishes is so great as has been stated.

I have a Return from some parishes, and according to that, the total number appears to be seven, and among them two or three of the cases alluded to by the Right Honourable Gentleman. If, however, it should appear on examination that the parishes have been so burdened, I can only say, that as at present advised, I shall take the same view of the case as the Gallant Officer. Of course I do not pledge myself to anything, but I will inquire into the case; and if it should appear that the number is as great as has been stated, the subject must be taken into consideration, to see whether some remedy cannot be applied. I will add, however, to this statement, that as soon as the War-Office was first made acquainted with these circumstances, they adopted much more precise regulations. I cannot, however, think that any blame is attributable to the War-Office in consequence of the conduct of these men, for it is impossible for the ingenuity of man to devise regulations which bad and wicked men would not endeavour to escape from. I have before me a Return of the number of cases, in which it has been discovered that soldiers applying for pensions have sent in false affidavits of their ages and of the periods of service. The remedy for this evil must of course rest with the War-Office, and I have no doubt that such regulations will be framed as to prevent the recurrence of this. There is no doubt, also, that the regulations, as to the granting pensions, require some alteration. I believe, from the documents on the Table of the House, that the average age of those who commuted these pensions is forty-five: the question is, whether this is not too early an age. It was suggested that the average age should be sixty, but it appears to me that that would be too late in life—and more especially in the life of a soldier—to become a settler in a foreign country. It is obvious, however, that whatever alterations or new arrangements may be made in this service, the War-Office cannot have any other intention than to consider the interests of the soldier and of the country. Indeed, these interests may be considered as one; for, of course, anything which tends to increase the efficiency of the service must be advantageous to the country.

With respect to the pensioners who were sent out to Canada for the purpose of being located, it appears, from letters recently received at the Colonial-Office, that they were going on extremely well, and had conducted themselves with the greatest propriety since they had been sent to those settlements. I believe when they first landed they were guilty of some irregularities and excesses; but this perhaps might be anticipated from this class of persons after a long and tedious voyage; but since that time they have conducted themselves with great steadiness. The greatest caution was exercised towards those persons who were more recently sent out, and great care was taken not to hold out expectations which could not be realized. We found that many of the men who were first sent out anticipated that they were to receive allotments of land, of a quality similar to that around London; and they were greatly disappointed, on arriving at Canada, to find that the land to be given to them was forest land. The Colonial-Office have, in consequence of this, recently determined not to make grants of lands to pensioners who commute their pensions in this country, as it was considered to be often productive of evil and disappointment to hold out too great an inducement to the pensioners to commute their pensions.

I do not know whether the Right Honourable Gentleman thinks it necessary for me to enter into further details on this subject. In conclusion, I can only repeat, that the War-Office hopes that every exertion will be used in those parts to improve the situation of the soldier, as far as can consistently be done,—at the same time that effectual checks are adopted to prevent the commission of fraud. I trust that the interests of the soldier will be looked after as they ought to be, as, by doing so, an important service will be rendered to the public. I will only add, that if the present regulations should appear objectionable, I am sure both the Government and the War-Office would be happy to attend to any suggestions of the Right Honourable and Gallant Officer, or of any other competent authority.

Mr. Hume could not coincide in the opinions of Sir H. Hardinge with respect to commutations of pensions. He considered that every inducement ought to be held out to pensioners to settle in the British colonies. He complained of the extravagant manner in which pensions had been granted since 1814; and he should be glad to know from the Paymaster-General if steps had been taken to punish those officers who had connived at the granting of improper pensions? He was also of opi-

nion that pensions in times of peace should not be granted on the same terms as in times of war. He considered that to replace men on the Pension List, who had commuted their pensions, would be to encourage fraud.

Lord John Russell.—In answer to the question of the Honourable Member, I have only to say, that the inquiry he has alluded to is not yet finished, but I believe it will be completed in the course of a few weeks; of course, until then, it will be impossible to adopt any measure on the subject. In the course of the labours of this Court of Inquiry, it has been discovered that many soldiers have had pensions granted to them whose time of service was falsely stated in their discharges. With respect to the commanding officers of regiments conniving at this practice, I do not know that any such case has been discovered; but there undoubtedly has been great carelessness with regard to this matter. The Honourable Gentleman suggested that there should be a difference between the pensions granted in times of war and peace; but if the Honourable Gentleman had seen the state of the regiments when they returned from our foreign possessions, such as the Ionian Islands, Malta, or the West Indies, and was aware of the sufferings the soldiers had to undergo in those places, he would not think that a difference of this sort should be made. I trust that no proposition of this nature will ever be sanctioned by the House, or that the suggestion will ever be acted upon in our service. I am sure that the severe service that some of our regiments have to undergo in our foreign possessions, is equal to anything that they suffer in time of war.

With respect to the Pension List, I have no doubt that the regulations adopted in 1829, by the Right Honourable and Gallant Officer, while Secretary-at-War, will tend materially to the reduction of the Pension List. I think that the plan of giving conditional pensions for one or two years instead of for life, will prevent many men from becoming a burden on their country, and will enable them to return to their duties with re-established health. Of course, however, on this, as on other matters, a considerable discretionary power must be left to the Secretary-at-War. With respect to those men whose pensions are commuted, I will trouble the House with only one or two observations. The expense of passage was greater than was stated by the Right Honourable Gentleman, and a larger proportion was defrayed by the public. The Honourable Member for Middlesex is wrong in supposing that the whole of the commutation-money was paid to the pensioners in London. A third of the money was given to each pensioner in London; a third was given to each man by the master of the vessel on his landing in Canada, and the remainder on his settling. I cannot help thinking, that if this plan had been judiciously acted upon, it would have been beneficial both to the soldiers and the colony. It is not, however, surprising, when we consider the general character and habits of soldiers, that many of them did not behave with that degree of propriety which could have been wished, but it is gratifying to hear that since their arrival their behaviour has been exemplary in a high degree.

I concur in opinion with the Gallant General, that a considerable degree of the inconvenience arose from not giving the Commissioners of Chelsea Hospital a greater control. The Secretary-at-War alone had the power of granting pensions, and the only thing that was done at Chelsea was to pay them. I think that the Commissioners at Chelsea should have the power of remedying abuses when they discover them, instead of being obliged to apply to the War Office on the subject. I agree also with the Honourable Member for Middlesex, that great caution ought to be exercised in giving new pensions to these men, who squandered in so shameful a manner the money which they had received to go abroad. I think that, if this course were pursued, it would afford a very bad example. I think that one of the great advantages of the present mode of paying pensions to those men who have served their country so long is, that they are still continued under the control of the Commissioners of Chelsea Hospital, who have the power of withdrawing these pensions in case of misbehaviour. I shall only add, that I quite agree with that part of the statement of the Right Honourable and Gallant Gentleman, in which he stated that no army in the world had to perform such severe service as the army of England. I think, therefore, that they are entitled to the consideration of the House, and that no time can be ill bestowed in considering what measures can be adopted, so that the soldiers may end their days as comfortably as possible.

Sir A. Dalrymple.—I entirely concur with the Honourable Member for Middlesex, that the country is under the greatest obligations to my Right Honourable Friend for the admirable arrangements he introduced into the War Office. I think also that the observations respecting the commutation of the pensions made by my Right Honourable Friend, are deserving of the most serious attention. The present regulations are, of course, founded upon those of Mr. Windham, which were called

into operation in 1806. That distinguished man was well acquainted with human nature, and therefore exerted himself to protect the soldier from the oppression of the War Office by those regulations. It appears, however, that the rate of commutation is directly in opposition to those regulations. It appears that according to the arrangements of the present Government, the commutation-mouey given to the soldier for his pension, at any period of life, is equal to only four years' payments of his annuity. I do not believe that this is acting upon a fair principle, notwithstanding this commutation is accompanied with a grant of land in the Canadas. It appears, however, that this grant is not to be continued, and, consequently, the value of the commutation is diminished. With respect to those who, after having availed themselves of the offer to commute for their pensions, refused to go to Canada, I think the Right Honourable Gentleman has not stated anything like the real number. I went this morning to the vestry-clerk of the parish in which I reside—namely, St. George's, Hanover-square,—and asked him whether there were any army-pensioners dependent on the parish; and he informed me that there were twelve or fourteen solely dependeut on the parish, whose pensions had been commuted. I was also informed, that relief was often given to persons in the expectation of obtaining remuneration at the War Office, but on going there it was not at all uncommon to find that the pensions had been commuted. The parish authorities are informed, that they have taken their money and are no longer pensioners. I must say, however, that I think those who have commuted their pensions have been treated harshly, as many of them have received only 12*l.* out of 40*l.*, at which sum they agreed to commute their pensions. I think, at least—and I am sure that the Honourable Member for Middlesex will agree in this—that the men ought to receive the remuneration of the 40*l.*

Sir George Murray.—I will not detain the House more than a very few minutes. I think that the principle of encouraging the emigration of soldiers is good and wise, but it requires the strictest care and management. It should be recollected, that during the greater part of their lives, everything is provided for the soldiers, even to their food; and, therefore, it is not surprising that they should be improvident when left to themselves. It is not to me a matter of astonishment that these men should squander the commutation-money they received for their pensions, for most of them would think that the sums they received were inexhaustible. I have always considered the plan of commutation to be most excellent, when it can be combined with settling the pensioners in Canada. I think that a more beneficial class of settlers cannot be sent out to the colonies than these military settlers. I do not see why the system of making grants of land in the colonies to this class of persons should not be greatly extended, for I am sure that it might be managed in such a way as to tend to the advantage and defence of the colony. In Canada, for instance, they might be placed in the weakest points, or those districts most open to attack, for instance on the shores of Lake Ontario. If this plan were acted upon to any extent, you would have military colonies in those districts most open to the incursions of an enemy. I was glad to hear the Right Honourable Secretary state that he was satisfied that the interests of the army and the public were the same, and I am convinced that no regulation could be adopted which is injurious to the army that would not also prove detrimental to the public.

I cannot sit down without also expressing my satisfaction at hearing the observations which fell from the Noble Lord, relative to the nature of the services performed by the British army. As regards the army, we may always be said to be in a state of warfare, for regiments are constantly being moved from place to place, and may be called upon, at a very few hours' notice, to depart to the most distant parts of the world. I am sure that the country will never be induced to sanction the withholding pensions to men unless in time of war; for it is obvious that the service, in periods of peace, is almost equally arduous and dangerous in our foreign possessions as it is in time of war.

Colonel Maberly.—I cannot agree with all the observations that have fallen from my Right Honourable and Gallant Friend opposite. I do not think that it is expedient to appeal to the passions on a topic of this nature. I recollect that there are two sides of this question, and that the interests of others besides the soldiers should be consulted. The pension-list is most enormous; and if it goes on increasiug at the rate it has increased for some years past, it will, I fear, become a question in this House, whether we shall be able to keep up a standing army. My Honourable Friend, the Member for Middlesex, has more than once recommended that the Militia should be called out more frequently, and even that that force should be increased, so that we might be able to dispense with a portion of our regular troops. This is in consequence of the enormous charge of the dead weight; and I fear that if this is not soon diminished, a feeling in favour of some arrange-

ment of this nature will become more general throughout the country. If, by the adoption of any plan of this nature, we should lessen the efficiency of the standing army, we shall expose ourselves to the attacks of other nations, and lose all that influence we at present possess.

With respect to the arrangements introduced, as to pensions, by the Right Honourable and Gallant Gentleman, I am sure no one can appreciate the value of them more than I do, and I can speak practically, as the commanding-officer of a regiment. I trust, however, that no time will be lost before efficient measures are taken to reduce this enormous burden. At present, the amount of these pensions is above 160,000*l.*, being about one-fourth of the army estimates. I have heard many military officers assert, that if this evil goes on, it would be better not to allow any pensions than to run the chance of diminishing the efficiency of the British army.

I think that the system of allowing soldiers to commute their pensions, for the purpose of settling in the colonies, is most excellent, and I hope that it will not be lost sight of; but that such arrangements will be made, as to prevent the recurrence of the unfortunate circumstances which have been alluded to. My Honourable Friend, the Member for Middlesex, said he did not think that, even if a pensioner is between sixty and seventy, and has a family, he should not be allowed to commute his pension and settle in the colonies. I do not dissent from this; but, of course, the circumstances of each case must be taken into consideration; and I think it would be found, in most instances, that these men do not generally go out for the purpose of providing for themselves, but rather with the hope of making some provision for their posterity. I am convinced that, if proper care be taken, this plan may be made most beneficial to the settlers—most beneficial to the parish, by taking off the wives and families of these pensioners—most beneficial to the country, in diminishing our present superfluous population—and most beneficial to the colony, in adding a most useful class of settlers, both in a civil and military point of view. I trust that any partial failure will not induce my Right Honourable Friend to abandon entirely this most useful scheme.

Mr. Goulburn.—I certainly heard with some surprise the Gallant Officer charge my Right Honourable and Gallant Friend with endeavouring to excite the passions of the House. I am satisfied that my Right Honourable Friend had no intention of doing so; but it is impossible to touch upon this subject, without, in some degree, exciting the sympathies of all. The Gallant Officer truly said that, if the Pension List is allowed to go on increasing, as it has done since the peace, it will be impossible for the country to continue to bear the weight of the present efficient standing army. I think that the conduct of my Right Honourable and Gallant Friend, when he was in office, at once shows that he was not indifferent to this subject. I am sure the Gallant Officer will admit that my Right Honourable Friend exerted himself greatly to promote this object; but he is desirous that we should do so by means which are not liable to the objections which can be urged against the present plan. He objects to holding out an inducement to the soldiers to part with their pensions, at a price much less than their value. He does not object to the principle of commutation; he objects to the manner in which it is carried into effect. At present, you tell the soldier that he shall not sell his pension to the man who will give him the full value for it, but that he shall sell it to the Government, who will not do so. I, therefore, agree with my Right Honourable Friend in his objection. I understand, also, that the amount of the commutation has recently been diminished, as now no grants of land in the colonies are allowed; so that if a man is desirous of commuting his pension, he must do it at a great sacrifice. I am convinced that a system of this nature might be adopted, which would, at the same time, be beneficial to the soldier and the country; but the present plan, as has been clearly shown by my Right Honourable Friend, is manifestly unjust.

Colonel Evans.—I do not think that the Noble Lord has answered the observations of my Honourable Friend, the Member for Middlesex, relative to making a distinction between times of peace and war, as to the granting of pensions. The Noble Lord said that many regiments return from unhealthy climates: in cases of this sort an exception might be made; but I do not think the rule should be general.

Lord Viscount Howick.—The Right Honourable Gentleman has stated that the soldiers have been defrauded of a part of their commutation money, in consequence of not having the grants of land in the colonies continued to them. Now, I am at a loss to understand how this objection can be urged, as the soldiers now will have grants of land made to them if they proceed as other settlers to Canada. The reason why the former system of giving each of these men grants of fifty acres each was not continued, was because the greater portion of them had not, when they arrived at the place of their destination, sufficient capital

to cultivate the grant. It was considered, therefore, that the tempting offer of this grant made men go upon a more desperate enterprise, without being sufficiently aware of the nature of the difficulties they had to contend with. It appeared that most of these pensioners who went out from this country, anticipated that they should receive grants of cleared land fit for immediate cultivation—land such as is cultivated in England; but when they found that only forest land was granted to them, they manifested great surprise, and appeared to think that they had been deceived. The Right Honourable and Gallant Gentleman said that by pursuing this plan military colonies might be formed at the western points of our possessions; but I fear that we never could send out a sufficient number of men to make this suggestion available to any extent. According to a despatch from Quebec, of November 24th, the general conduct of these men has been excellent; and although some slight excesses occurred on their landing, no other complaints had been made against them.

Mr. Goulburn.—Of course the grant of land was a part of the commutation; for a soldier would hardly commute his pension for four years' purchase without this grant.

The motion was then agreed to.

On the question that the Speaker do leave the Chair—

Sir Henry Hardinge said,—I am sure that the House will agree with me that the declaration of the Right Honourable Gentleman is satisfactory as far as it goes, and that this discussion will have produced some beneficial results, if it causes justice to be done to some of these individuals, as in the case of Gray, and makes the Government more careful and more humane in the mode of commuting pensions; more particularly as it is admitted by the Right Honourable Baronet that sufficient precautions were not taken in the first instance. It is evident from the details I have given the House, that there has been no examination by medical officers in the case of several of these sick and mutilated men, of their capacity and fitness to undertake the difficulties of struggling with a severe climate in a wilderness. That this inspection by medical officers may have taken place latterly I have no doubt; but the blame originally is with the War-Office, for allowing such men to commute at all. I trust that in these, and all justifiable cases, a man will be replaced on the Pension List, although he may have taken a commutation. When I state that 300, 400, or 500 men have failed to embark after receiving commutation, I have been asked by the Honourable Member for Middlesex, why should these men be allowed to continue pensioners? What I proposed to the Right Honourable Baronet was, that any pensioner who had failed to embark—if any justifiable reasons were found for his not doing so, on investigation of his case, might be allowed to be replaced on the Pension List, after a reduction had been made from his pension of the amount of commutation money he had received.

The Honourable Member for Middlesex has said, that it would be a gross encouragement to the commission of frauds. Now my proposition was, not to replace the man on the Pension List, and, as a matter of course, thus allow him to enjoy the fruits of any fraud; but, as in the case of a man of the name of Gray, to replace him, so that the public should lose nothing, by stopping the amount of the commutation received from the pension. The rule of never replacing a man on the Pension List after accepting commutation, if strictly applied, would be found, in some cases, to be extremely hard. For instance, there is a case in point mentioned to me by an officer whom I met this day. A man in the Dragoons, whose name I do not recollect, accepted a commutation of his pension; he had taken his passage on board a ship, but the vessel was prevented from sailing for Quebec by the state of the weather; between the time of his taking his passage, and the period of the sailing of the vessel, he was taken ill, and was prevented from joining his ship; and yet this unfortunate man's pension is taken away from him. If the Honourable Member for Middlesex would inquire into cases of this description, I think he would at once admit the necessity of replacing these men on the Pension List. There would be no loss to the public, and I really think it would be nothing but an act of justice and fair play to these poor fellows. The Right Honourable Baronet must have made some mistake, when he alluded to the diminution of the pensions in 1830 and 1831. He alluded to months; I went through the years, and showed a diminution of pensioners in 1830, as compared with 1827, of 1900. Again, in the year 1831, only 1678 permanent pensions were granted; being a diminution of 1800. I suspect,—as compared with the average of five years,—the Right Honourable Gentleman must have mixed up the temporary pensions in his account; the difference between the two years, 1830 and 1831, is, in reality, only eighty men, and is so trifling, that it is impossible for him to deduce any argument from it as to the working of the new Regulation.

The Right Honourable Gentleman says, that he conceives that that part of the Re-

gulations I introduced, by which a soldier, after twenty-one years' actual service, may accept a reduced pension of 10*d.* a day, instead of that given him by Mr. Wyndham's Act, has failed in practice, as being too expensive. Now, I am prepared, whenever the Right Honourable Gentleman chooses to go into the question, to prove, by my calculations, that a saving of 15,000*l.* or 20,000*l.* each year will be effected on this point alone,—assuming 500 men each year to take the reduced pension. As it would be very difficult, indeed, to enter into the calculations of an actuary in this House, even if I had the papers here, he will agree that it is better not to enter into the subject now; but I beg to repeat, that a great saving will be, and has been, effected on this point. Even if there were not a saving, I do not see how the Right Honourable Gentleman could allow junior soldiers, of between fourteen and twenty-one years' service, to receive their discharge with a gratuity, refusing the same indulgence to the old soldier, who has served one-and-twenty years. The soldier who, by sobriety and regular conduct, has preserved his health and bodily powers after that period of service, would think it a case of great hardship that he should be deprived of the benefits which are bestowed upon his juniors.

With regard to the observations of the Honourable Member for Middlesex, on the subject of frauds detected in the regiments, I have only to say that they were very numerous: they were investigated with the greatest strictness. The cases of the men were brought before the Commissioners of Chelsea Hospital, at which the late Paymaster-General, a most kind-hearted and intelligent individual, presided. The Commissioners are composed of both civil and military officers; and I can only say, having attended that Board as regularly as my other avocations would permit, that, during the two years, I think it was impossible to carry into effect the regulation to its strictest extent, that, because a man had committed a fraud, to which the laxity of the system in the orderly-room was too great a temptation, he was to be deprived of his pension altogether.

I will state a case which will show how impossible it was for the Commissioners to act on any such principle. The serjeant-major of the 29th regiment, one of the most gallant regiments in the service, committed a fraud, by which his years of service were made to appear greater than they really were. He had a pension of 2*s.* per day. I believe the Honourable and Gallant Officer opposite, the Member for Poole, who commanded that regiment for so many years, will recollect the case. His name was reported by the Military Committee, and sent in to the Commissioners, and he was ordered to be struck off the list of pensions. A reference was made by the man to Colonel Hodges, his commanding officer, who returned for answer:—

"I have known serjeant * * * for twenty-one years, and his conduct during that time has been most exemplary, particularly at the battle of Roliça, in 1808, on which occasion he received three wounds, and was publicly thanked by his commanding officer."

The minute dated at Chelsea, in 1830, is to this effect:—

"He has forfeited his pension, but in consideration of his gallant conduct and exemplary behaviour, as certified by his commanding officer, the Commissioners are induced to place him on the Pension List at 1*s.* per day."

Now this is the way in which we were obliged to deal with such cases; and when we found that the temptation to the commission of fraud had been very great, and that a certificate of good conduct could be produced, we thought it too hard that such men, after long service, and great bravery in the field, should be thrown pennyless on the world. This case may serve to illustrate several hundred of cases which came before the Commissioners of Chelsea Hospital.

My Honourable and Gallant Friend, the Surveyor-General of the Ordnance, when he talks of my having made an appeal to the passions of the House, will, I think, do me the justice to say that I might have made such an appeal with some effect, if I had chosen; for if I were to contrast the Orders in Council in favour of the negroes with what has been done for the old soldiers, I am satisfied the result would prove to be most severely against the latter. My Honourable and Gallant Friend, the Member for Rye, who sits behind the Gallant Gentleman to whom I have just referred, observed that he thought the cavalry soldiers ought to be allowed to reckon their period of service on an equality with the infantry. But the Gallant Officer must recollect that the cavalry, generally speaking, do not serve in the colonies, and it would be very unjust to place them on the same footing as the infantry, when the great wear and tear upon the constitution is chiefly caused by colonial service. I will not enter into this question any further at present; I will content myself by merely saying that the attention of Government ought to be directed to this subject; and if it is well considered, and with prudence—if it is considered with fairness—if it is considered with that caution which I have recommended in two succes-

sive Parliaments, I am satisfied that the Pension List may be reduced and the soldier benefited; but if the system of which I complain be persevered in, then, I repeat, it is ruinous to the soldier, burdensome to his parish, and discreditable to the Government.

Sir John Hobhouse.—The first objection which has been made is with respect to the hardship of only allowing a soldier to commute four years' pay; and we have been told that it is a very hard case that the Act does not allow any more. All I can say in reply to that charge is, that the Right Honourable Gentleman opposite was the author of the order which directed this regulation; and I presume, therefore, that he can give the Right Honourable Gentleman, the late Chancellor of the Exchequer, the best answer upon the subject. The words of that order are precise, and cannot be mistaken —"four years' pay as an equivalent."

Now, Sir, with respect to that part of the plan which has been proposed by the Right Honourable Gentleman,—that in case any men should fail to follow up the commutation by going out, the War-Office shall have it in its power to make a fresh arrangement with them, and to replace them on the Pension List,—I must beg to remind the Right Honourable Gentleman that the Act of Parliament gives the War-Office no such discretion. I will take the liberty of reciting the terms of the Act; and after I have done so, I think the Right Honourable Gentleman will at once see, that if this discretion be given to the War-Office, an Act of Parliament must be introduced repealing the former Act. The Act says,—

"And the receipt of the person receiving such commutation, or equivalent, or other proof of his having accepted an equivalent, or commutation in lieu of such share of pension, shall be a good discharge for the same, and the sum so paid shall be considered as a release and abandonment of all claims to any future or other payment of pension."

Now, I must say, that I rather think these words would preclude any Secretary-at-War from giving to the soldiers any new claim, they having, by this Act, forfeited their old one. I beg leave to state now to my Honourable Friend, the Member for Middlesex, with respect to what I said before, that if, upon examination at the War-Office, I find that there is in the statement of the Right Honourable Gentleman opposite, that which makes it imperatively the duty of the Government to take the case into consideration, and, in fact, to change completely—because I rather think that is, in point of fact, the Right Honourable Gentleman's proposal—the mode in which the principle of commutation is carried into effect,—the Government will consider it their bounden duty so to do. Here is the observation which may, perhaps, be applicable to this part of the question, which, I believe, I did not state before. The Right Honourable Gentleman is quite mistaken, if he supposes that the whole of the sum allowed for commutation is put at once into the hands of the pensioners. Only a certain portion is given them at first; and in all these cases the greatest possible care has been taken that the money should not be paid until it is almost certain that the soldier has actually gone abroad. With respect to the certificates, I beg to state, for the information of the Right Honourable Gentleman, that not only a medical certificate, but three or four other certificates are required.

Sir Henry Hardinge.—Now they are.

Sir John Hobhouse.—Yes; now they are. I will just state the nature of them, because it is rather important that the House and the country should not be induced to suppose, that if there were any trivial mistakes made in the outset, proper steps have not since been taken to cure those mistakes by the Government. First, the pensioner makes a statement as to his age, rate of pension, trade, or calling,—whether he is married, and if he has any children, their names and the dates of their births,—then, whether he intends carrying on a trade when he gets out, and what means he has of conveying himself to the colony. Then, there is another certificate required of the name and address of the minister of the parish in which the pensioner resides, of the name and address of the magistrate before whom the affidavit was made; then another certificate from a medical man as to the state of the pensioner's health; and, finally, a certificate from one or more respectable householders as to his general character. It is very possible, and I regret to say that in many of the cases very probable, that the unfortunate habits of the applicants may induce them to evade all the checks imposed by these certificates, and to elude the vigilance of the Government. I cannot help thinking, however, that the Government has done its duty in making these requisitions; and the only thing which remains to be done is, to inquire whether the age which is fixed as the limit beyond which no pensioner shall be sent out to the colonies, is or is not a proper one? There are differences of opinion on this point, certainly.

Sir Henry Hardinge.—I would beg leave to read the part of the article which contains the provision to which I alluded, as I dare say the Right Honourable Gentleman, only having entered office, I believe, in

February last, is not acquainted with it. In the articles for the regulation of the army, signed by the King;—I do not intend to infer that the Right Honourable Gentleman has any want of knowledge of the duties of his office; far from it; considering the short period he has filled it, I am sure his answers are very clear and satisfactory; but he may not be, perhaps, aware of the following passage in the Articles for the regulation of pensioners, signed by his Majesty:—

"Where grants of land can be made in the colonies, the precise terms of the grant, and the most advantageous mode of paying the gratuity, shall be explained to the soldier before he receives his discharge; and when he has been settled three months, and is actually residing on his grant, the Government, under authority from the Secretary-at-War, may, in addition to the gratuity, allow the soldier a quarter's pension at 6*d.* a day, and may from time to time renew it for a period not exceeding one year."

Now, one of the points of which I complain is, that the Secretary-at-War should, by a War-Office letter of his, not have given to the old pensioner, with whom a most profitable bargain is made for the public, that advantage which the King's regulation affords to younger men discharged upon gratuities; in favour of which the Lieutenant-Governor of Upper Canada has stated his opinion.

The House then resolved itself into Committee.

On the question, that the Bill be now read, paragraph by paragraph,

Mr. Hunt said,—When the Marine Mutiny Bill was before the Committee, on the question that it be read paragraph by paragraph, I asked the then Chairman to stop at the clause which related to corporal punishment, not extending to life or limb. I was then told by the Chairman,—I think, by the Right Honourable Secretary for Ireland,—yes, by the Right Honourable Secretary for Ireland,—and by the Right Honourable the Secretary for the Treasury,—that there were no such words as those in the Mutiny Act; so I was put down, and the Mutiny Act was not even read clause by clause. Upon the assurance of these Gentlemen, and giving way, as I now wish I had not done, to their, as I supposed, superior knowledge of the subject, I let the opportunity pass without moving that the words should be left out. I now see that the 24th Clause in both the Acts contains the words to which I then objected. With regard to the Marine Mutiny Bill I must say, that I never saw on any occasion, although I have seen a good deal in this House, anything passed over in such a slovenly manner. The Right Honourable Secretary for Ireland told me there were no such words in the Act, and, as far as I recollect, so did the Right Honourable Secretary for the Treasury, and the then Chairman, Mr. Ponsonby. I would appeal to the Right Honourable Secretary-at-War whether this is not the fact. And now I find in the 24th Clause of the Bill these words—

"Provided also, and be it further enacted, that it shall be lawful for any such general court-martial to inflict the punishment of imprisonment, solitary or otherwise, or corporal punishment, not extending to life or limb, as such court-martial shall think fit."

I therefore do complain, that I was prevented from making the motion which I called on the Chairman to allow me to make, by his acceding to the statement to which I have referred. All that I have now to request is, that when the clause is arrived at, I should have an opportunity of moving that the words "corporal punishment not extending to life or limb" be struck out.

Mr. Spring Rice said that he had misdirected the Honourable Member for Preston. He had no wish to lead him astray. He had thought the words were not in the Bill.

Mr. Ponsonby denied that he had stated the words were not in the Mutiny Act.

Mr. Hunt denied he had said he did. What he said was, that the Chairman did not contradict those who said so, and did not examine the Bill.

The Chairman then put the question on several clauses, which were agreed to, some verbal amendments having been introduced.

On the question, that the clause relating to courts-martial have the power of inflicting the punishment of death, stand part of the Bill—

An Honourable Member said,—This is a clause of very great importance, and I would beg to ask whether officers, who are under age and very young in the service, are allowed to sit on courts-martial?

Mr. Hume.—I think it most important that this question should be answered.

Mr. Robert Grant.—The officers who compose a court-martial are selected by the Commander-in-Chief, who, of course, makes choice of those who are most experienced and best qualified to perform this duty properly. I believe that, in almost every case abroad, the greatest care is taken to secure an efficient and impartial tribunal.

The Honourable Member.—Cannot any officer who has been in the service six months sit upon a court-martial?

Sir Henry Hardinge.—The fact is as the Right Honourable Gentleman opposite has stated. The officers who compose a court-martial are in general selected by the Commander-in-Chief. Now, it certainly is very desirable that no technical objection should prevent a court-martial being formed abroad

in foreign service, and, in many such cases, the strength of the garrison would not admit of the whole court being composed of old officers. I must therefore say, that I think the alteration which has been proposed would be found extremely inconvevient in practice.

Colonel Sibthorp.—I believe no officer is ever placed on a court-martial who is not a man of experience; and I think every one will acknowledge that they always discharge their duties with the strictest honour and impartiality.

Mr. Hunt.—If the law of the land declares that no person under twenty-one years of age shall sit on a jury, I think it should equally apply to courts-martial; and I certainly do not think that a man should be tried for his life, or, what is in many cases worse, be sentenced to corporal punishment, by young and inexperienced men.

Clause agreed to.

Clause 7.—On the question, that this clause stand part of the Bill—

Mr. Hunt said,—In moving that the words "corporal punishment not extending to life or limb" be omitted, I beg to state, that when a short time since I moved for a return of the number of soldiers in the army flogged in one year, I was under the erroneous impression that the floggings which, we know, take place to such an extent, and which the Right Honourable Secretary-at-War has often described in such strong terms, were public; but I see that since I made that motion, the officers in the barracks have called their soldiers together, and reprimanded them for sending to the newspapers accounts of the punishments inflicted on the men. I saw an account in the papers soon after I made the motion to which I referred, in which it was stated that there were private punishments inflicted which did not come before the public in any way except through the soldiers themselves, or the medium of the public press. I do think that the present, being a time of peace, is an additional argument in favour of the motion. Blackstone says, in his Commentaries, speaking of this law, that soldiers are placed in a much worse situation than any other class of his Majesty's subjects. I do hope, in time of peace, this state of things will not be allowed to continue. I have often heard with pleasure the speeches of the Right Honourable Secretary-at-War on the subject, in which, I am sure, he did it ample justice. Perhaps now he is in office he may find himself compelled to act differently, but I hope and trust he will not forget his old sentiments, and that he will take the subject into consideration. At all events, I shall take an early opportunity of moving for those Returns; and, on that occasion, I shall bring forward, I hope, much stronger cases for having that inhuman system of torture abolished, which consists in tearing the flesh of a soldier actually off his bones. Some gallant officer behind me says "nonsense,"—perhaps he has never witnessed the infliction of this punishment?

Colonel Sibthorp.—I never have.

Mr. Hunt.—Well, then, he has been very fortunate. An officer once stated to me, that when he was first in the army, being a young man, he was standing by, witnessing the execution of this punishment, and after the man had been flogged some time, large pieces of clotted blood, and sometimes flesh, at every stroke of the cat, were thrown upon his waistcoat. He was so much affected and disgusted with the sight, that he turned away his head, when he was told by his commanding officer to face about, and do his duty. I am prepared to bring the officer who made this statement to the bar of this House.

Colonel Sibthorp.—I never saw anything like this.

Mr. Hunt.—I suppose, then, the Honourable Member was never in the Guards. Can it be said now, that such punishments as these should be inflicted for some merely trivial disobedience of orders, such as staying out of quarters without leave? The question is, whether the system of discipline cannot be kept up without this system of punishment.

Sir John Byng.—I certainly should be very sorry if it were to be supposed that the officers in the army are not as considerate, as humane, and as anxious for the welfare of their soldiers as any other class of people; and if officers do witness the execution of this punishment, it should be recollected that their situation is one of absolute necessity. I do not, however, rise so much for the purpose of advocating corporal punishment as with the view of making some observations on what has been said by the Honourable Member for Preston. The Honourable Gentleman thinks that this punishment is inflicted in private. He will allow me to tell him that he is altogether in the wrong. Every punishment must be registered, and if a soldier receives only one lash it would be noted down. Now, if the House will do me the favour of attending to me for one moment, I will show it that it is totally impossible that punishment can be privately inflicted. By the general regulations of the army, every regiment undergoes an inspection every half-year by a general officer, whose duty it is to call for the production of the books. He calls for the defaulter's book, and the officer who has it in his possession is required, as a matter of course, to produce it. If the general officer sees that a man has been punished, he looks

to see whether he has been guilty of any offence deserving of severe punishment before. If he finds he has not, the general officer asks on what ground it is that he was severely punished, he being a new offender; and the commanding officer states the reason why the punishment has been inflicted. He is also required to state the nature of the punishment, when and where it was inflicted, and whether it was proportionate to the offence. In short, there is no possible precaution that could be taken which is not adopted to prevent the possibility of a single man being flogged without absolute necessity. I have been thirty years in the service, and I will venture to say that the punishment is not now inflicted to one-fiftieth part of the extent it used to be. In the last ten years alone, I am sure it has been reduced to one-tenth what it used to be. I am confident that this House may trust to a body of men who, I maintain, are as attentive to the wants and wishes of the soldiers as any other set of men can by possibility be; and I trust the House will believe that punishment is never inflicted in these cases without a just and adequate cause. With this feeling I must oppose the motion of the Honourable Member for Preston, because I am satisfied that it is not required, and because I feel convinced that corporal punishment must be adopted in cases which will sometimes occur.

Mr. Hume.—I am sure I have no wish to accuse the officers of the army of want of humanity. The Honourable and Gallant Gentleman has told us that the flogging is not one tenth part of what it used to be; and yet we have been refused the return. I think that this system of punishment ought to be abolished altogether; at all events, in time of peace. I am told there are some regiments in the service which are most admirably conducted, but in which no corporal punishment is ever inflicted. Now I would beg to ask the Honourable and Gallant Officer who has just sat down, where would be the danger of trying the experiment of doing without this system in England for one year? If the flogging which is now inflicted is not one-tenth the amount of that which was inflicted a few years ago, God knows what the state of the army must have been then; and if the punishment has ever been fifty times its present amount, the British army must have been in a melancholy state indeed.

Colonel Sibthorp.—I agree with the Honourable Member for Middlesex, that the army must have been in a sad state, indeed, if it were in the situation to which he has adverted; but the Honourable Member for Middlesex is, I think, more conversant with what I should call matters of economical arrangements, than with the army. A bill has just left this house (I hope, to be put down in another) for the purpose of introducing a reform in the state. The spirit of emulation inspires the Honourable Member for Preston, and so he and his supporters are very desirous of reforming the army, in a manner which is, I think, a most indelicate interference with that establishment, which has been the admiration of the world, and which, I affirm, ever has been, and I hope will ever continue, the dread of its enemies. I never knew a single case in which punishment was not inflicted with the deepest regret on the part of the officers; and under all the circumstances, I feel convinced that the House will not interfere with the regulations of the army, as I humbly submit, indeed, they have no right to do; and I hope that, should the House so interfere, the matter will be left to better judges of the subject than the Honourable Member for Preston and the Honourable Member for Middlesex.

Sir John Hobhouse.—The Honourable Member for Preston was certainly correct in stating that I have entertained—and I will add, that I still entertain—a strong opinion on this subject; and certainly, if the framing of the Mutiny Bill rested with me, I should like to try that experiment which has been adverted to with the home service. But the Honourable Member for Preston is, perhaps, not aware that the framing of the Mutiny Bill does not rest entirely with the Secretary-at-War. In form it certainly does, but it certainly is not, in fact, his doing; and I have no hesitation in saying, that I had no more power of leaving this clause out of the bill, than the Honourable Member for Preston himself had. I certainly entertain the opinion I have formerly expressed, that it is expedient to abolish this punishment; but, at the same time, I am bound to state, that all the old experienced authorities whom I have consulted are of an entirely different opinion. There is no person with whom I have conversed on the subject since I have been in office, who has not assured me that such a step would be most detrimental to the interests of the service. That is their opinion; I certainly cannot say that it is mine. A very strong public opinion has been expressed on this subject; but I believe I may say, that the regulations which were introduced by the Right Honourable and Gallant Gentleman opposite, transferred a great power from individuals to general courts-martial, and produced an alteration which has been productive of the very best and most advantageous effects.

I do not know that it is necessary for me to explain, at the present moment, why the Returns to which the Honourable Gentleman has adverted were refused. I do not know that there is any desire to keep this

subject secret. The Honourable and Gallant Gentleman behind me truly stated, that a register is kept of the punishments which are inflicted. That register is at the Horse-Guards,—the Horse-Guards exercise a supervision over it, but I am not aware that there is any disposition whatever to keep it secret. There were one or two other reasons against the production of these Returns, which I will not trouble the House with at present; the rather, as the Honourable Gentleman says that he will make this the subject of a distinct motion. He certainly has enlarged his motion. In the first instance it was confined, I believe, to a single regiment; and now it is to extend to the whole army. I must say, that I think this is rather an invidious mode of dealing with the question; and unless the Honourable Gentleman states better grounds in support of his motion, than he advanced on a former occasion, I shall feel compelled to refuse to accede to it.

Sir Henry Hardinge.—I feel extremely obliged to the Right Honourable Baronet for bearing testimony to the beneficial results of any changes which I may have introduced; but I regret to differ from the Right Honourable Gentleman with respect to the principle on which he has placed the formation of the Mutiny Act. I must confess that I take a very different view of that subject, for I think that the Secretary-at-War is, in a constitutional point of view, the proper person to draw up the Mutiny Bill and the Articles of War. He is bound to stand between the civil subject and the military, and it is his duty to take care that the civil part of the community are properly protected, and that those who enter the army are not treated in an unnecessarily strict manner. If the Right Honourable Gentleman meant to say that he ought not to make any alteration in the Mutiny Act or the Articles of War, without the concurrence of the Commander-in-Chief, I entirely concur with him; but, having held that honourable office of Secretary-at-War, I must maintain that it is, in a constitutional point of view, the duty of a Secretary-at-War to be responsible in every of these transactions to this House and to the country.

With regard to the opinions of the Right Honourable Baronet, as to corporal punishment, he has very fairly admitted that every one he has consulted is opposed to him upon that subject, and that he still entertains an opinion contrary to that of every experienced officer in the army. I think this, in itself, would be a most conclusive argument as to the propriety of retaining the system of corporal punishment; at the same time I must object to the observation of the Right Honourable Gentleman, by saying it would be perfectly unwise to make any experiment of doing away with corporal punishment in England and preserving it abroad. Why, the soldiers would be told, if such a proceeding were adopted, "While you remain in England your backs are safe; but, the moment you go out to fight your enemy, you will become subject to the infliction of corporal punishment." The necessity of corporal punishment, I will candidly own, appears to me to be very great, at home as well as abroad. It is admitted that our army is constituted in a different manner from any other in Europe—by voluntary enlistments; and the consequence is, that a very different description of men enter the army to those taken by conscription.

Previously to the introduction of the system of conscription, it was the custom for Russia, France, and Austria, to use corporal punishment of the severest kind. What induced them to alter the system? The introduction of conscription. When it was introduced from necessity, it was found that if the yeomen and shopkeepers were called to serve in the army,—if they are liable to be called on to defend their country,—there was not the same necessity for corporal punishment as when a different class of men were enlisted. But when you have to deal with an army like the British, which serves in the colonies, in the East and West Indies, and is exposed to every kind of hardship and trial, it would be found impossible to raise it by conscription. When you enlist a set of as fine fellows as can be found anywhere, if their utter recklessness of danger constitutes, as it does, a military qualification,—but when you recollect that the very irregularities of their previous lives, very likely, have been the cause of their enlisting,—I think it will be admitted that it is necessary to preserve that strict degree of discipline which corporal punishment alone can give; and I cannot disguise my opinion, that if corporal punishment were abolished, the army of this country would no longer remain in its present admirable state of discipline. I would ask any Honourable Member, does he think that an armed body of men would be tolerated in this country for a single day, if it were not for the admirable state of discipline in which the men are kept? Would any householders submit to riotous conduct and disorderly behaviour on the part of the military? Certainly not; and yet, look to the conduct of his Majesty's Foot Guards in this town—look to the excellent terms of harmony and good feeling in which they stand with the citizen, and then look at the discipline which is preserved among them. I have

such a dislike to agitating the subject of corporal punishment, that I believe I have very seldom made any observations in this House upon the subject, but the result of my opinion certainly is, that it is necessary, for the strict conduct of the men, and the credit and discipline of the service. I could state facts to show that corporal punishment in the army has very much diminished within the last few years; but as the Honourable Member for Preston has expressed his intention of making a specific motion on the subject, I shall reserve myself for that occasion.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer.—I understood my Right Honourable Friend, the Secretary-at-War, to say, that it was impossible for him to have omitted this clause, even if he had been disposed to do so. Now, I have heard many discussions on this subject, and I need not say that my opinion has been in favour of the abolition of corporal punishment; but I regret to say that I do not think the service could be effectually carried on without it. The cases in which it is inflicted are of an atrocious description.

Mr. Robert Grant.—The King has the authority of appointing the courts-martial who shall have the power of inflicting this punishment, and I think there is a very good security that it is not improperly exercised. With respect to the returns which have been alluded to, I can only say, that they could not have been granted without causing an exposure prejudicial to the service.

I feel myself bound to say, after having, in the situation which I have the honour to fill, made it my duty to make particular inquiry upon the subject, that the change which has recently been made in substituting imprisonment for corporal punishment has had a most beneficial effect. I will mention to the House a fact which will at once demonstrate this. In comparing the number of corporal punishments which took place in the year 1821, with the number inflicted in 1831, I found that in the latter year a diminution had taken place in the proportion of 12 to 1. With respect to the punishment by imprisonment, that has tended greatly to supersede corporal punishment. In 1811 the ratio of corporal punishments was about 2 to 1; whereas in the last year the ratio was only 1 to 5: a great diminution of punishments in the army is therefore apparent; but I will not enlarge upon the subject now. When the general question of military punishments comes on, I shall be happy to enter into the consideration of it, and assist those Gentlemen whose humanity impels them to take a deep interest in the subject, in ascertaining what ought to be finally determined upon. I will now only venture to throw out this hint to those Gentlemen, which is, considering how much punishment in the army has been mitigated in point of practice, and how much the principle which they themselves advocate,—namely, that lenient punishments are more salutary than severe ones,—has been illustrated in the substitution of imprisonment for corporal punishment, I would suggest for their consideration, whether much more may not be done by leaving this power to inflict corporal punishment in the Mutiny Act—at the same time that every possible means are used to diminish its practical application, either by regulations, emanating from the office which I have the honour to hold, or by the introduction of some alterations in the Articles of War,—than can possibly be effected by constantly exciting discussions in this House on the subject,—which discussions must have a tendency to increase the desire on the part of the officers to have the power retained in the Act. I will add only one other observation, namely, that in point of fact, corporal punishment has greatly diminished; and I shall be happy to lend every aid which the situation I fill will enable me to do, to the further diminishing of it so far as it can be done consistently with the proper maintenance of military discipline.

Mr. Kemmis.—It seems to be the desire of Gentlemen on both sides of the House that corporal punishment in the army should be diminished as much as possible; and I hope that his Majesty's Government will take some means to effect that object. I can assure the House that it is very rarely that corporal punishments are inflicted in the militia. The officers of the army are by no means desirous to exercise that power with severity, though I believe it is their wish that the power should remain to them, as it is sometimes found more effectual to inflict a slight corporal punishment than to imprison the men. I can likewise bear my testimony to the correctness of the statement made by the Right Honourable and Gallant Officer below me (Sir H. Hardinge.) During the last two years, I can assure the House, I have never been present at any court-martial where sentence of corporal punishment has been given; nor have I during that period seen any such punishment inflicted. But with regard to the punishments which are used in the foreign service, the real amount of punishment is much greater than in the British army; for, in consequence of their not inflicting corporal punishment by flogging, they are obliged to substitute the torture.

Mr. Hunt.—What has fallen from the

Honourable and Gallant Officer, is, in my opinion, worthy the attention of his Majesty's Government. I am not at all sorry that I have caused this discussion, because, from the observations which have been made by the several speakers, and more especially by the Gallant Officers who have taken part in the debate, it appears that there has been a great diminution of corporal punishments in the army. It has been stated by the Right Honourable and Gallant Officer, (Sir H. Hardinge,) that it would not be possible to keep up the discipline of the army unless the power of imposing corporal punishment existed. Now, I am disposed to believe, that this is his conscientious opinion; but I am sorry that his experience as an officer makes him entertain that opinion. I do not accuse him of any disposition to exercise an unnecessary degree of severity in the army; though I cannot help believing that it is quite possible that a civilian, who has no predilections upon the subject, but looks at it only in the light of a question of humanity, may possibly be as likely to form a correct opinion as one whose professional bias might naturally incline him to covet a power, and even suppose it necessary that he should possess it, because it happens that he has hitherto possessed it.

I was glad to hear the testimony given by the Right Honourable the Secretary-at-War to the benefits that have resulted from the recent arrangements which have been made, and that the consequence has been a considerable diminution of this unfortunate species of infliction. I beg to offer the Right Honourable Baronet my humble tribute of thanks for his having been the means of effecting this change. But after all that has been said, the description which I gave of one flogging alone has not been contradicted. An Honourable and Gallant Member (Colonel Sibthorp) says, that this is an indecent interference with the British army; —but I am not talking of indecency, I am talking of a species of torture that is fifty times worse than anything indecent. I speak of a punishment by which the flesh is torn from the bones, and the life of the sufferer is in many instances put in the greatest jeopardy, if not actually destroyed. An Honourable and Gallant Officer says that foreign armies resort to a species of torture, but he does not condescend to tell us what that description of torture is. But I would ask, can the ingenuity of man devise a more horrible kind of torture than what is now practised in the Guards? I have been informed that a man in the Guards was brought out to receive 500 lashes, and that after receiving a portion of them, his mind and whole frame were wrought up to that state of excitement, that the surgeon called out "Hold! another blow will cause death." —Can the Honourable and Gallant Officer tell me of a worse species of torture than this? Although it is the general opinion of military men in this House that the discipline of the army cannot be kept up without the power of inflicting this torture upon the men, yet that does not afford any argument to justify his Majesty's Ministers in withholding the return for which I have applied. If it be true that the cases in which the lash is inflicted are now very few, that is a reason why the Government should have granted me the return I asked for. The Right Honourable and Gallant Officer has said that there is no such thing as secret punishment practised in this country: he says, that the commanding officer must make a return of the punishment, and that it must be registered in a book, which goes to the Commander-in-Chief. Yes; and there it stops. I do not complain of there being anything secret so far as regards the army; but what I complain of is, that these things are entirely withheld from the public, who, in consequence, are impressed with a belief that this species of punishment is carried to an enormous extent. His Majesty's Government have therefore done great injustice to the army by withholding these returns. I am ready to believe, from the statement made by the Right Honourable the Judge Advocate, that punishments in the army have considerably diminished within these few years. I hope the time will come when corporal punishment will be done away with altogether. My motion is "that these words shall be left out;" but I should say, "during peace." I am sorry that I entertain no hopes of carrying my motion.

The Chairman.—Do you divide?

Mr. Hunt.—Why, perhaps, it would be invidious to do so. I certainly am delighted at what has fallen from the Gallant Officers, and also from his Majesty's Ministers, during this discussion. Since I made the motion for papers relating to this subject, I have observed that, in many instances, men have been drummed out of the regiment. That I think is a much better method than the infliction of torture by the lash.

Sir J. M. Doyle.—I particularly agree in the opinion expressed by the Honourable Member for Middlesex, that this obnoxious and degrading punishment might be abolished in time of peace; although during active service, in time of war, it should be continued.

The amendment was then negatived without a division.

The other clauses were then agreed to.

PROMOTIONS & APPOINTMENTS.

NAVY.

ADMIRALTY OFFICE, JUNE 27.

This day, in pursuance of His Majesty's pleasure, Capt. Sir Michael Seymour, Bart. K.C.B. and Capt. Thomas Briggs, of the Royal Navy, were promoted to be Rear-Admirals of the Blue; the former taking rank next below Rear-Admiral Norborne Thompson, and the latter next below Rear-Admiral James Carthew.

PROMOTIONS.

CAPTAINS—Andrew Atkins Vincent, K.H.; Samuel Radford, late of his Majesty's ship Nimrod; C. Hamlyn Williams, late of his Majesty's ship Champion.

COMMANDERS—George Dobson, Wm. Barrow, Wm. Dawson, from the Royal George Tender Pantaloon.

LIEUTENANTS—Henry Wright, Alexander Taubman Goldie, Bosville John Wilson, John Russell, Richard Fitzgerald King, Thos. Smyth, Thomas Hope (b.), W. C. Aidham.

APPOINTMENTS.

Rear-Admiral Sir F. L. Maitland, K.C.B. to be Superintendant of his Majesty's Dock-yard at Portsmouth.

CAPTAINS—Fanshawe, to the Donegal, vice Dick, invalided.

COMMANDERS—T. Maitland, to the Sparrowhawk; D. Cox, and W. R. Jackson, to the Coast Guard, Ireland; Hon. A. Duncombe, to the Champion; E. Handfield, to the Preventive Service at Clifden, County Galway.

LIEUTENANTS—Edward Herrick and Alexander Boyle, to the Champion; E. Owen, to the Dee; K. Corbet, of the Ariadne, to the Orestes; G. Ramsay, of the Orestes, to the Nimrod; Russell, mate of the Arachne (acting), to the Ariadne; J. Hickman, to the Ordinary, at Sheerness; J. H. Weller, to the Castor; Sydney Colpoys Dacres, to the Royal George Yacht, vice Dawson, prom.; Sackett Hope, to the Beacon; G. D. Smyth, to the Adelaide Revenue Cutter; W. Aldred, to the Shamwell.

MASTERS—James Tucker, to the Dispatch; J. Coaker, to the Orestes.

SURGEONS— —— Anderson, to the Aboukir, fitted as a Cholera Hospital for convicts, at Chatham; —— Clarke, to the Warrior, fitted as a Cholera Hospital for artificers, at Chatham; A. Neil, to the Dispatch; D. Wright, to the Desirée Cholera Hospital ship, at Sheerness; —— Hilditch, Assist.-Surg. of the Blanche (acting), to the Arachne, vice Dixon, invalided.

ASSISTANT-SURGEONS— — Marshall, to the Desirée Cholera Hospital ship, at Sheerness; D. Wilkes, to the Dispatch; J. Morrison, to the Tremendous, Cholera Hospital ship, at Sheerness; — Tucker, of the Ordinary, at Sheerness, to superintend the female convicts on board the Fanny, from which he will afterwards join the flag-ship in the East Indies; W. Munroe, Supernumerary, to the Victory, and to do duty at Haslar; D. W. Walker, to be Assistant-Surgeon of the Navy, and to do duty at Haslar, as Supernumerary of the Victory, vice Jewell, appointed to the Sylvia, transport.

PURSER—J. C. Bulman, confirmed, of the Scylla.

ROYAL MARINES.

PROMOTIONS.

CAPTAINS—First-Lieut. T. Quested, vice Langdon, retired; John Drury, vice Brev.-Major Wm. Taylor, appointed Pay Captain at Woolwich, vice Brevet-Major R. S. Wilkinson, placed on the reserved half-pay list.

FIRST-LIEUTENANTS—Second-Lieuts. Geo. Watson, vice Quested, promoted; John Land, vice Drury.

SECOND-LIEUTENANTS—J. J. Winne, C. F. Hoskins.

ST. JAMES'S PALACE, JUNE 27.

The King was this day pleased to confer the honour of Knighthood upon Maj.-Gen. Frederick William Mulcaster, of the Royal Engineers, Military Knight Commander of the Royal Hanoverian Guelphic Order.

The King was this day pleased to confer the honour of Knighthood upon Maj.-Gen. Joseph Straton, Companion of the Most Hon. Military Order of the Bath, and Military Knight Commander of the Royal Hanoverian Guelphic Order.

ARMY.

WAR OFFICE, JUNE 29.

Memorandum.—His Majesty has been pleased to approve of the 28th Regt. of Foot bearing on its colours and appointments, the word "Corunna," in commemoration of the gallantry displayed by the Regt. in the action at Corunna, on the 16th January, 1809.

10th Regt. of Light Drs.—John Gloag, Gent. to be Veterinary Surgeon, vice Sanneman dec.

16th Light Drs.—Lieut. Edward Guest, to be Capt. by p. vice Macan, pro.; Cornet George Crofton, to be Lieut. by p. vice Guest; Charles William Reynolds, Gent. to be Cornet by p. vice Crofton.

13th Regt. of Foot.—Lieut.-Col. William Elton, from h. p. unat. to be Lieut.-Col. vice Sir Michael M'Creagh, who exchanges.

37th Foot.—Ens. William Arthur Smelt, to be Lieut. by p. vice Macleod, who ret.; Henry Edward Manners, Gent. to be Ens. by p. vice Smelt.

53d Foot.—Lieut. William George Gold, to be Capt. by p. vice Widdrington, who ret.; Ens. Adolphus Frederick Bond, to be Lieut. by p. vice Gold; Hon. St. George Geraid Foley, to be Ens. by purchase, vice Bond.

65th Foot.—Lieut. Alexander Henry Louis Wyatt, to be Capt. by p. vice Morshead, who ret.; Ens. George Freeman Murray, to be Lieut. by p. vice Wyatt; Francis Wise, Gent. to be Ens. by p. vice Murray.

68th Foot.—Assist.-Surg. Richard Williams, M.D. to be Surgeon, vice Reid, deceased.

70th Foot.—Ens. William Green, to be Lieut. by p. vice Swan, who ret.; Edward Digby Murray, Gent. to be Ensign by p. vice Green.

74th Foot.—Walter Warde, Gent. to be Ens. by p. vice Pattison, pro. in the 1st West India Regiment.

1st West India Regt.—Lieut. Alured Caddy, to be Capt. by p. vice Richardson, who ret.; Ens. Alexander Hope Pattison, from the 74th Foot, to be Lieut. by p. vice Caddy.

Unattached.—Capt. Turner Macan, from the 16th Light Drs. to be Major of Infantry, by p.

Hospital Staff.—William Renny, M.D. to be Staff-Assistant-Surgeon, vice Fagg, deceased.

Royal Military College.—Assist.-Surg. John Pickering, M.D. to be Surgeon vice Bruce, dec.

Memoranda.—Brev. Col. Nicolas Ramsay, Inspecting Field-Officer of a Recruiting District, has been allowed to retire from the service by the sale of an unattached commission.

The Christian names of Ens. Murray of the 92d Foot, are Samuel Hood, and not Samuel Wood, as stated in the *Gazette* of the 22d inst.

King's Own Staffordshire Militia.—Henry John Chetwynd Talbot, Viscount Ingestre, to be Lieut.-Col. vice Henry Lord Waterpark, resigned.

WINDSOR CASTLE, JUNE 24, 1832.

The King was this day pleased to confer the honour of Knighthood upon Col. John Woodford, of the Gren. Regt. of Foot Gds. and to nominate him a Knight Commander of the Royal Hanoverian Guelphic Order.

Royal Cheshire Militia. — James Waithall Hammond, Esq. to be Capt. vice Mainwaring, resigned.

Wilts Militia.—Frederick Pearson, Gent. to be Lieutenant, vice John Smith, resigned.

Salisbury Volunteer Infantry.—James Noke Wilmot, Gent. to be Ens. vice T. A. Chubb, pro.

East Lothian Yeomanry Cavalry. — James Hay, Gent. to be Lieut. vice Rennie, res.; Thomas Buchan Hepburn, jun. Gent. to be Cornet.

East Devon Regiment of Militia.—Frederick Granby Farratt, Gent. to be Lieut.; Philip Lardner, Gent. ditto.

North Devon Regt. of Militia.—Samuel Sampson, Gent. to be Ensign.

1st Devon Regt. of Yeomanry Cavalry.—Capt. Charles Clark to be Adj. vice White, dec.; Joseph Chichester, Gent. to be Lieut. vice Stowey; Ralph Sanders, Gent. to be Cornet vice Carew, res.; Thomas Porter, jun. Gent. ditto; Samuel Parr, Gent. ditto; William Miles, Gent. ditto.

North Devon Regt. of Yeomanry Cavalry.—John Duker Inglett Fortescue, Esq. to be Maj. vice Stevens, dec.; Lewis Risdon Heynett, Esq. to be Capt., vice Sunk, pro.; Montague Edward Smith, Gent. to be Lieut. vice Cooke, dec.; Charles Burdon, Gent. ditto, vice Heynett, pro.; William Burford, Gent. to be Cornet.

East Devon Regt. of Yeomanry Cavalry.—John Hawkes Merles, Gent. to be Cornet.

South Devon Troop of Yeomanry Cavalry.—Richard Ocock, Gent. to be Cornet, vice Bowden, resigned.

ST. JAMES'S PALACE, JULY 4.

The King was this day pleased to confer the honour of Knighthood upon Maj.-Gen. John Macleod of the 78th Regt. of Highlanders, Companion of the most Honourable Military Order of the Bath, and Military Knight Commander of the Royal Hanoverian Guelphic Order.

WAR OFFICE, JULY 6.

Royal Regt. of Horse Gds.—Lieut. Hon. G. C. W. Forester to be Capt. by p. vice Dashwood, who ret.; Cornet Hon. H. Pitt to be Lieut. by p. vice Forester; Lord A. Paget to be Cornet by p. vice Pitt.

6th Regt. of Drag. Gds.—Cornet Hon. A. G. F. Jocelyn to be Lieut. by p. vice Campbell, who ret.; J. H. Dickson, Gent. to be Cornet by p. vice Jocelyn.

6th Regt. of Foot.—Ens. J. E. Wetherall, from h. p. unat. to be Ens. vice Augustus Barry, who exchanges.

9th Foot.—Capt. E. L. Godfrey, from h. p. unat. to be Capt. vice J. Scargill, who exc. rec. the difference.

13th Foot.—Maj. W. H. Dennie to be Lieut.-Col. by p. vice Elton, who retires.

15th Foot.—Capt. J. Macpherson to be Maj. by p. vice Dennie; Lieut. J. G. D. Taylor to be Capt. by p. vice Macpherson; Ens. R. G. Hughes to be Lieut. by p. vice Taylor; T. G. Gisborne, Gent. to be Ens. by p. vice Hughes.

28th Foot.—Lieut. H. Elton, from h. p. 22d Light Drs. to be Lieut. vice J. S. Greene, who exc.

56th Foot.—Capt. J. Birch, from h. p. 90th Foot, to be Capt. vice G. Hogg, who exc.

60th Foot.—Capt. R. Rumley, from 66th Foot, to be Capt. vice Marlton, who exchanges.

66th Foot.—Capt. F. Marlton, from 60th Foot, to be Capt. vice Rumley, who exchanges.

96th Foot.—Capt. J. Stewart (2d), from h. p. unat. to be Capt. vice M. Sherer, who exc. rec. the difference.

1st West India Regt.—Lieut. J. R. Grant, from the 2d West India Regt. to be Lieut. vice Pattison, who exchanges.

2d West India Regt.—Lieut. A. H. Pattison, from the 1st West India Regt. to be Lieut. vice Grant, who exchanges.

Unattached.—Lieut. J. Ward, from the 1st Foot, to be Capt. of Infantry, by purchase.

Memoranda.—Brevet-Maj. N. Fuchs, h. p. Meuron's Regt. has been allowed to retire from the service by the sale of an unattached company.

The Christian names of Capt. Eaton, of the 29th Foot, are Christopher *Edward*, and not Christopher *Jefferson*.

OFFICE OF ORDNANCE, JULY 3.

Royal Regt. of Art.—First-Lieut. E. Trevor to be Sec.-Capt. vice Baker, ret. on h. p.; Sec.-Lieut. J. H. Francklyn to be First-Lieut. vice Trevor; Gent. C. S. B. Hornby to be Sec.-Lieut. vice Hinchliffe, pro.; Gent. Cadet St. John T. Browne to be Sec.-Lieut. vice Trapp, pro.; Gent. Cadet C. Bingham to be ditto, vice Poulden, pro.; Gent. Cadet H. S. Rowan to be ditto, vice M'Coy, pro.; Gent. Cadet J. N. A. Freese to be ditto, vice Ommaney, pro.; Gent. Cadet F. D. Cleaveland to be ditto, vice Grant, pro.; Gent. Cadet H. Murray to be ditto, vice Sinclair, dec.; Gent. Cadet C. Smith to be ditto, vice Caffin, pro.; Gent. Cadet H. A. Turner to be ditto, vice Mitchell, pro.

Flintshire Yeomanry Cav.—Frederick Charles Phillps, Gent. to be Lieut.

1st Regt. of Oxfordshire Yeom. Cav.—Henry Jawney, Gent. to be Cornet, vice Edgarton, app. Regimental Paymaster.

ST. JAMES'S PALACE, JULY 4.

The King was this day pleased to confer the honour of Knighthood upon Maj.-Gen. John Hanbury, late of the Gren. Gds., Military Knight Commander of the Royal Hanoverian Guelphic Order.

The King was this day pleased to confer the honour of Knighthood upon Capt. John Marshall, of the Royal Navy, Companion of the most Hon. Military Order of the Bath, and Knight Commander of the Royal Hanoverian Guelphic Order.

OFFICE OF ORDNANCE, JULY 9.

Memorandum.—The King has been pleased to grant to the Royal Regt. of Art. and Corps of Royal Engineers, his Majesty's permission to wear on their appointments the royal arms and supporters, together with a cannon, and the motto, "Ubique quo fas et gloria ducunt."

JULY 10.

West Somerset Regt. of Yeomanry Cavalry.—William Hancock, Gent. to be Lieut.; Thomas Watson, Gent. ditto; Edward Bryant, Gent. do., Henry W. Randolph, Gent. do.

WAR-OFFICE, JULY 13.

1st Regt. of Dr. Gds.—Cornet Henry Neville, to be Lieut. by p. vice Phibbs, who ret.; Forster Goring, Gent. to be Cornet, by p. vice Neville.

5th Dr. Gds.—Lieut. George Allgood Loraine, to be Capt. by p. vice Gardiner, who ret.; Cornet Francis Parnell Hovenden, to be Lieut. by p. vice

Loraine; Ens. James Fitzmaurice Scott, from 71st Regt. to be Cornet, by p. vice Hovenden.

4th Regt. of Light Drs.—John Edward Geils, Gent. to be Cornet, by p. vice Read, appointed to the 13th Light Drs.

7th Light Drs.—Capt. Thomas Edmund Campbell, from 1st Foot, to be Capt. vice Paget, app. to the 52d Regt.

13th Light Drs.—Cornet Edward Rudston Read, from 4th Light Drs. to be Cornet, vice Tournay, who retires.

1st Regt. of Foot.—Capt. John Hamilton Dundas, from h. p. unat. to be Capt. paying the dif. vice Campbell, app. to the 7th Light Drs.; Lieut. Charles Cooke, from 62d Regt. to be Lieut. vice Hill, who exchanges.

9th Foot.—Lieut. Hon. Adolphus Frederick Cathcart, to be Capt. by p. vice Godfrey, who ret.; Ens. Jarvis Minto, to be Lieut. by p. vice Catbcart; Artbur Borton, Gent. to be Ens. by p. vice Minto.

29th Foot.—Maj. John Walter, from 62d Regt. to be Maj. vice William Elliot, who ret. upon h. p. unat.

52d Foot.—Capt. Steuart Henry Paget, from 7th Light Drs. to be Capt. vice George Montagu, who ret. upon h. p. rec. the dif.

60th Foot.—Capt. Randall Rumley, from 66tb Regt. to be Capt. vice Marlton, app. to the 76th Regiment.

62d Foot.—Brev. Lieut.-Col. George Hillier, from h. p. unat. to be Maj. vice Walter, app. to the 29th Regt.; Lieut. Robert John Hill, from tbe 1st Foot, to be Lieut. vice Cooke, who exc.

65th Foot.—Capt. James Pickering, from h. p. unat. to be Capt. vice Alexander Henry Louis Wyatt, who exc.

66th Foot.—Capt. Henry Edward Hoare, from 76th Regt. to be Capt. vice Rumley, app. to the 60th Regt.

71st Foot.—Charles Ready, Gent. to be Ens. by p. vice Scott, app. to the 5th Dr. Gds.

76th Foot.—Capt. Francis Marlton, from 60th Regt. to be Capt. vice Hoare, app. to the 66th Regt.

81st Foot.—Lieut. George F. de Rottenburg to be Capt. by p. vice Logan, who ret.; Ens. Charles Humfrey, to be Lieut. by p. vice de Rottenburg; Hon. Montagu P. Bertie, to be Ens. by p. vice Humfrey.

2d West India Regt.—Ens. Francis Brittlebank to be Lieut. without pur. vice Hoskins, dec.; Ens. Edward Ricard, to be Lieut. without pur. vice M'Vical, dec.; Ens. William Guise Whitcombe, to be Lieut. by p. vice Brittlebank, whose promotion, by purchase, has been cancelled; John Duntze Macdonald, Gent. to be Ens. without pur. vice Whitcombe.

Staff.—Maj. William Elliot, h. p. unat. to be Dep. Quar.-Mast.-Gen. in Jamaica, with the rank of Lieut.-Col. in the Army, vice Hillier, app. to the 62d Regt.

Memoranda.—The exchange between Captain Marlton, of the 60th Regt., and Captain Rumley, of the 66th Foot, as stated in the *Gazette* of the 6th inst. has not taken place.

The promotion of Capt. Macpherson to be Maj., of Lieut. Taylor to be Capt., of Ens. Hughes to be Lieut. and of Mr. Gisborne to be Ens., were in the 13th, and not the 15th, Foot, as stated in the *Gazette* of the 6th instant.

JULY 17.

The King has been pleased to direct Letters Patent to be passed under the Great Seal of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, conferring the honour of Knighthood upon Colonel David Ximenes, K.C.H.

First Cornwall Corps of Yeomanry Cavalry.—Humphry Millet Grylls, Esq. to be Major; Glynn Grylls, Esq. to be Capt.; Thomas Symons, Esq. to be Capt.; Frederick Hill, Gent. to be Lieut.; John Bull, Gent. to be Lieut.

Royal Berks Militia.—Mortimer Geo. Thoyts, Esq. to be Capt.; George Thomas Coleman, Gent. to be Ens.; James Winckworth, Gent. to be Ens.

JULY 20.

2d Regt. of Dr. Gds.—Capt. Charles Paget, from h. p. of the Regt. to be Capt. vice Curtis, deceased.

3d Regt. of Foot.—Assist.-Surg. Arthur Wood, M.D. from the 78th Foot, to be Assis.-Surg. vice Francis Browne, who ret. upon h. p. 26th Foot.

4th Foot.—Capt. Philip Delisle, from h. p. 97th Foot, to be Capt. vice Henry Palmer Hill, app. Paymaster 8th Foot.

8th Foot.—Capt. Henry Palmer Hill, from the 4th Foot, to be Paymast. vice Cox, dec.

9th Foot.—Studholme Brownrigg, Gent. to be Ens. by p. vice Ogilvie, who retires.

16th Foot.—Ens. Charles Jefferies Carter, to be Lieut. by p. vice O'Neill, app. to the 29th Foot; George Harris Wallace, Gent. to be Ens. by p. vice Carter.

29th Foot.—Lieut. John O'Neill, from the 16th Foot, to be Lieut. vice Faden, who retires.

42d Foot.—Ens. James Muir Fergusson to be Lieut. by p. vice Douglass, who ret.; Serj.-Maj. — Wheatley, to be Adj. with the rank of Ens. vice Macfarlane, who res. the adjutantcy only.

68th Foot.—Staff-Assis.-Surg. John Fitzgerald, M.D. to be Assis.-Surg. vice Williams, prom.

78th Foot.—Staff-Assis.-Surg. William Robertson, to be Assis.-Surg. vice Wood, app. to the 3d Foot.

81st Foot.—Capt. James Ward, from h. p. unat. to be Capt. vice David Duval, who exc. rec. the difference.

1st West India Regiment.—William Maxwell Mills, Gent. to be Ens. by p. vice Robinson, who retires.

Garrisons.—Lieut.-Gen. Sir John Byng, G.C.B. to be Governor of Londonderry and Culmore, vice Lieut.-Gen. Hart, deceased.

Hospital Staff.—To be Staff-Assis.-Surgeons—Assis.-Surg. John Forrest, M.D. from h. p. 8th West India Regt. vice Fogarty, prom. In the 22d Foot; Assis.-Surg. Francis Hopkins, M.D. from h. p. 2d Life Guards; Assis.-Surg. Michael Lawless Duigan, from h. p. 57th Foot; Assis.-Surg. Charles Foote, from h. p. 26th Foot, vice Robertson, app. to the 78th Foot.

Shropshire Militia.—Edward Lloyd Gatacre, Esq. to be Capt.; Edward Farrer Acton, Esq. to be Capt.; William Davenport, Esq. to be Capt.; James Eysam Graham, Esq. to be Capt.; Francis Marston, Gent. to be Lieut.; John Moore Knightly Chadwick, Gent. to be Lieut.; Thomas Hardwick, Gent. to be Lieut.; Thomas Matthews, Gent. to be Lieut.; Charles Frazer, Gent. to be Ens.; Thomas Boyce, Gent. to be Ens.; John Meyrick Frazer, Gent. to be Ens.

North Salopian Regt. of Yeomanry Cavalry.—Cornet J. Shirley, to be Adj. with the rank of Capt.; Robert Masefield, Gent. to be Lieut. vice Warren, promoted.

WAR OFFICE, JULY 24.

18th Regt. of Foot.—Lieut.-Gen. Matthew Lord Aylmer, K.C.B. from the 56th Foot, to be Col. vice the Earl of Donoughmore, deceased.

56th Foot.—Lieut.-Gen. Sir Hudson Lowe, K.C.B. from the 93rd Foot, to be Col. vice Lord Aylmer, appointed to the 18th Foot.

93rd Foot.—Maj.-Gen. Sir John Cameron, K.C.B. to be Col. vice Sir Hudson Lowe, appointed to the 56th Foot.

Garrisons.—Gen. Sir Martin Hunter, to be Governor of Stirling Castle, vice the Earl of Donoughmore, dec.; Dr. Bennle, to be Chaplain to

Stirling Castle, vice Moodie, dec.; Major-Gen. Paul Anderson, to be Governor of Pendennis Castle, vice Sir Martin Hunter; Lieut.-Col. Peter Dumas, of the 65th Foot, to be Lieut.-Gov. of Gravesend and Tilbury Fort, vice Major-Gen. Paul Anderson.

Memorandum.—The half-pay of the undermentioned officers has been cancelled from the 24th instant, inclusive, upon their receiving a commuted allowance for their commissions:—

Paymaster William Loftus Otway, h. p. 1st West India Regt.; Surg. James Curtis, retired full-pay 5th Royal Veteran Battalion; Assist.-Surg. Richard Gough, h. p. 1st Life Grds.; Lieut. John Robinson, h. p. unat.; Ens. George Henry Herbert, h. p. 2nd Garrison Battalion; Lieut. William Hutton, h. p. 29th Regt. of Foot; Lieut. Sir St. Vincent Cotton, Bart. h. p. unat.; Ens. James Bradshaw, h. p. 53rd Foot.

The h. p. of the undermentioned officer has been cancelled from the 1st of April, 1832, inclusive, upon his receiving a commuted allowance for his commission:—

Paymaster Thomas Harvey, h. p. 56th Foot.

The undermentioned officer has also been allowed to receive a commuted allowance for his commission:—

Ens. George Gordon, late on h. p. 42nd Foot.

OFFICE OF ORDNANCE, JULY 21.

Royal Regt. of Artillery.—First Lieut. Richard Robinson Drew, to be Second Capt. vice Ellison, dec.; Second Lieut. Henry Thomas Fyers, to be First Lieut. vice Drew.

BIRTHS, MARRIAGES, AND DEATHS.

BIRTHS.

March 6th. At the residence of her father, J. Cowper, Esq. St. Simon's Island, Georgia, United States, the Lady of First-Lieut. John Fraser, h. p. Royal Marines, of a son.

June 14th. At Templemore, the Lady of Lieut. and Adj. A. F. Ansell, 74th Reg. of a son.

June 17th. At Devonshire Place, Kent Road, the Lady of John Taaffe, Esq. late of his Majesty's Dock-yard at Bermuda, of a son.

At Southsea, the Lady of John Kidd, Esq. Surgeon, of H.M.S. Ætna, of a son.

June 26th. At Primrose Villa, Ryde, Isle of Wight, the Lady of Lieut. J. G. M'Kenzie, R.N. of a son and heir.

July 2d. At Combe Down, near Bath, the Lady of Lieut.-Col. Marshall, of Calderhead, of a daughter.

At Cliff Cottage, near Truro, the Lady of Capt. Temple, R.N. of a son.

The Lady of Lieut. A. Kortwright, R.N. of a son.

At Newtownbarry, the Lady of Major George St. George Irvine, of a son and heir.

At Ballyshannon, county Donegal, the Lady of Lieut. Kelsall, 83d Reg. of a daughter.

July 7th. At Stonehouse, the Lady of Lieut. J. Cornish, R.N. of a son.

July 8th. In Queen Street, May Fair, the Lady of Lieut.-Col. the Hon. Standish O'Grady, unattached, M.P. of a son and heir.

At Leamington, the Lady of Capt. Hope, 15th Reg. of a son.

July 12th. At Lavenham, the Lady of Capt. Chads, R.N. of a son.

July 14th. At Walmer, Kent, the Lady of Lieut. W. G. Pearne, R.N. of a son.

MARRIAGES.

June 21st. At Clifton, Lieut. T. M'Leroth, R.M. to Anna Maria, daughter of the late T. Gelston, Esq.

June 21st. At Kingston, George Heather, Esq. Master, R.N. to Mary Ann, daughter of Mr. John Holmes, Clerk in his Majesty's Dock-yard.

June 25th. At All Souls' Church, Langham Place, Lieut.-Col. A. Maclachlan, Royal Art. to Elizabeth Mary Harvey, daughter of the late Col. Colebrooke, of the Royal Artillery.

June 28th. At Richmond, Capt. Barrington Reynolds, R.N. to Eliza Anne, daughter of M. Dick, Esq. of Richmond Hill, Surrey.

July 1st. At Booterstown Church, Capt. H. Hartford, late of the 59th Reg. eldest son of the late William Hartford, Esq. of Grange, county Kilkenny, to Charlotte, eldest daughter of Henry Hartford, Esq. of Merrion Avenue, c. Dublin.

At Stoke, near Plymouth, W. Harriott, Esq. Master, R.N. to Anne, youngest daughter of Capt. Hellock.

In Bath, Assist.-Surg. R. J. Gordon Grant, 22d Reg. to Mary, relict of the Rev. H. Towton, Rector of Vere, in the Island of Jamaica.

At St. Olave, Hart Street, Lieut. F. Servante, R.N. to Susan, daughter of R. Chantrell, Esq. of Bruges.

July 6th. Capt. Christopher Musgrave, 14th Light Dragoons, son of Sir James Musgrave, to Charlotte, second daughter of —— Lushington, Esq. of Clifton, and niece to Col. Morgan.

July 10th. At St. Martin's-in-the-Fields, London, William Alexander Mackenzie, Esq. Madras Army, to Frances Jane, third daughter of Charles Buchan, Esq. Edinburgh.

July 10th. At Christ Church, Marylebone, Capt. Fred. Madan, Hon. Company's Service, to Harriet, daughter of the late Sir James Graham, Bart. of Netherby, Cumberland.

July 13th. At Glasgow, Henry Marshall, Esq. Deputy Inspector General of Army Hospitals, to Ann, eldest daughter of James Wingate, Esq. one of his Majesty's Justices of the Peace for Lanarkshire.

At Dawlish, Capt. Geo. Sidney Smith, R.N. to Lucy, daughter of James Goss, Esq. of that place.

July 19th. At Jersey, John Gunning, Esq. Inspector General of Army Hospitals, to Elizabeth Henrietta, eldest daughter of the late Lieut.-Col. Geo. Fearon.

July 20th. At St. Pancras, Lieut. George Davies, R.N. to Julia, fourth daughter of Joseph Hume, Esq. of Percy Street, Bedford Square.

DEATHS.

MAJOR-GENERAL.

Nov. 3d, 1831. At Barrackpore, Bengal, Pine, East India Company's Service.

LIEUTENANT-COLONEL.

Jan. 26th, 1830. Barry, h. p. Bradshaw's Corps.

MAJOR.

May 21st. Johnstone, h. p. Rifle Brigade.

CAPTAINS.

Jan. 10th, 1832. Lethem, h. p. Royal Marines.
Jan 15th. P. L. Powell, ditto.
Jan. 27th. Soden, h. p. 24th Foot.
April 11th. At Tobago, Black, 19th Foot,
April 27th. Young, Royal Marines.
May 5th. Simpson, h. p. 60th Foot.
May 27th. Holland, Royal Marines.
Phillips, late 7th Regt. Veteran Battalion.
Hopper, late of Royal Marines.
R. Stewart, h. p. ditto.
Jenkin, ditto.

LIEUTENANTS.

Jan. 1st, 1832. At Cannanon, Madras, Wright, 54th Foot.
Jan. 20th. Wall, Royal Marines.
Feb. 20th W. G. Lloyd, ditto.
March 31st. Montgomerie, h. p. 103rd Foot.
April 2nd. Stockwell, ditto.
May 3d. At sea, on passage from Honduras to Nassau, New Providence, M'Nicar, 2d West India Regiment.
May 20th. M'Craw, h. p. 38th Foot.
June 6th. Moorhead, h.p. 2nd Royal Veteran Battalion.

CORNETS AND SECOND LIEUTENANTS.

April 26th, 1832. Russel, h. p. 20th Dragoons.
April 28th. Comber, h. p. 4th Dr. Guards.
Fortescue, h. p. Royal Marines.

ADJUTANT.

March 22nd, 1832. Nicholls, h. p. 3rd Prov. Battalion of Militia.

PAYMASTER.

May 2nd, 1832. Shaw, h. p. 96th Foot.

DEPUTY INSPECTOR GENERAL.

April 8th, 1832. At Dominica, Dow, h. p.

SURGEONS.

Martindale, 17th Foot.
Reid, 68th Foot.
May. At Shrewsbury, Sutton, h. p. 72nd Foot.
May 19. At Newry, Browne, h.p. Staff.

STAFF ASSISTANT SURGEON.

June 7th, 1832. At Chatham, Fagg.

VETERINARY SURGEON.

April 22nd, 1832. Pilcher, h. p. 18th Dragoons.

COMMISSARIAT DEPARTMENT.

Hen. Hickson.
March 24th, 1832. At Demerara, Brown, Dep. Assist. Com. Gen.

Jan. 30th. At Candy, nn the Island of Ceylon, the Rev. Thomas Ireland, aged 49, successively Chaplain to his Majesty's Forces at the Cape of Good Hope and in Ceylon.

At Montego Bay, Jamaica, Lieut. David Mosbery, of his Majesty's ship Ariadne, in the 36th year of his age.

At Edinburgh, of epilepsy, aged 35, Captain Archibald Maclean, R.N. He entered the navy in 1810, on board of the Pyramus. While a midshipman, belonging to the Endymion, he was severely wounded by a gun-shot wound through the left arm, a few inches above the elbow, and was, at the same time, taken prisoner by the American privateer the Prince of Neufchatel. This was in October, 1814, and a few months previous to the memorable capture of the President by the Endymion. He served as Lieutenant in the Leander and Vign, from 1816 to 1821, when he was made commander into the Beaver; and on the 29th of October, 1822, he was promoted to the rank of Captain, and took command of the Blossom on the South American station, under Sir Thomas Hardy. To the effects of the above wound may be attributed, in a great degree, his premature death.

At Plymouth, Mr. Zeph. Blundell Ostler, Purser, R.N.

June 28th. At Drayton Market, Retired Commander William Sandey, R.N.

June 28th. At Piershill Barracks, Edinburgh, Capt. Henry Curtis, 2nd Dragoon Guards.

June 29th. On his arrival from Bombay, Major G. White of the 19th Regt. Native Infantry.

Lieut. Griffith Bevan (1809), R.N.

Lieut. T. E. Knight (1811), R.N. killed by smugglers while attached to the Coast Guard of Weymouth. A reward of one thousand pounds has been offered for the apprehension of the murderers.

At Achill Beg, near Westport, Lieut. Joseph White, R.N. chief officer of the coast guard at that station.

At Falmouth, of apoplexy, Lieut.-Col. William Fenwick, C.B. Lieut.-Gov. of Pendennis Castle. Lieut.-Col. Fenwick entered the army in 1792, by being appointed to the 34th Foot, which regiment he joined in Ireland. In 1794 he proceeded with his regiment to the Island of Walcheren, whence, after remaining a short time, they embarked for the West Indies. He was present at the reduction of St. Vincent's, and several engagements with the enemy during that period. The regiment being ordered for England in the latter end of 1796, he returned a Captain, which step he obtained in 1795, and remained at home till 1799, at a late period in which year he embarked for the Cape of Good Hope; where he continued till the peace of 1802,—then proceeded to the East Indies. In 1803 he obtained the rank of Brevet-Major, and was promoted to a Majority in the 34th Reg. In May, 1805. In the latter part of 1807 he returned to England, and joined, in 1808, the 2d battalion of his regiment in Jersey. In Dec. of this year he succeeded to the Lieut.-Colonelcy of the 2d battalion of the regiment, in command of which he proceeded to Lisbon, where he disembarked on the 3d July, 1809. At the head of this battalion he was present at the battle nf Busaco, in the lines before Lisbon, at Albuera, Arroyo de Molinos, Vittoria, the Vale of Bastan, and several intermediate affairs, up to the Maya Pass in the Pyrenees, on the 25th July, 1813: here Col. Fenwick received a severe wound, and suffered amputation, very high up, of the right thigh. He shortly after returned to England, and on his arrival was appointed Lieut.-Gov. of Pendennis Castle. Colonel Fenwick obtained a Medal for Albuera, and a Clasp for Vittoria; he had also the honour of a Companionship of the Bath conferred on him, and the Knighthood of the Portuguese Order of the Tower and Sword.

At Balinrobe, of cholera, Assistant-Surgeon George Ross Watson, 83d Regt. aged 26 years.

At Ealing, Major John Fortnam of the late 19th Lancers.

At Litherland, aged 24 years, Lieut. H. Brade, of the 21st Royal Scotch Fusileers.

July 4th. At Edinburgh, Capt. James Robison, late of the 7th Fusileers.

At Edmonton, Lieut. W. Taylor, R.N.

In Dublin, of cholera, Capt. Ellison, of the Royal Artillery, together with his wife and her sister, and a female servant.

In London, Lieut. Harper, late of the 69th Regiment.

At Knocklofty-House, County Tipperary, Gen. the Right Hon. the Earl of Donoughmore, G.C.B. and K.C. Col. of the 18th or Royal Irish Reg. of Foot, and Governor of Stirling Castle. A Memoir of his Lordship's Services in our next.

At Plymouth, at an advanced age, and after a protracted and severe illness, which he bore with Christian fortitude, Sir Israel Pellew, K.C.B. Admiral of the Blue, and brother of Admiral the Right Hon. Lord Viscount Exmouth, G.C.B. A Memoir of Service in our next.

METEOROLOGICAL REGISTER,

KEPT AT THE OBSERVATORY OF CAPT. W. H. SMYTH, AT BEDFORD.

JUNE 1832.	Six's Thermometer.		At 3 P. M.			Pluviameter Inches.	Evaporotor Inches.	Winds at 3. P. M.
	Maxim. Degrees.	Minim. Degrees.	Barom. Inches.	Thermo. Degrees.	Hygrom. Parts.			
☿ 1	60·0	54·2	29·60	58·7	536	·370	·104	S.W. light breezes with rain.
♄ 2	64·8	52·0	29·84	64·0	466	—	·140	N.W. light breezes and fine.
☉ 3	65·0	52·7	29·72	65·0	478	—	·125	N. by E. fr. breezes and clear.
☾ 4	66·2	59·3	29·58	62·1	503	·180	·085	E. by S. variable light winds.
♂ 5	62·3	58·4	29·56	59·4	507	·505	·096	S.W. lt. winds, cly. with rain.
☿ 6	64·8	56·9	29·53	64·3	472	·218	·104	S.E. var. winds, showery.
♃ 7	64·9	56·8	29 62	61·5	490	·140	·095	S.W. light airs, showery aft.
♀ 8	62·3	56·2	29·74	62·3	450	—	·110	N.W. lt. breezes and cloudy.
♄ 9	64·4	57·0	29·83	63·2	490	·060	·086	S.E. fresh breeze, dist. thund.
☉ 10	64·0	57·2	29·87	64·0	492	·457	·075	S. lt. br., thund. storm 2 P.M.
☾ 11	64·8	57·6	29·62	64·8	563	·350	·055	S.S.E. fresh breezes, fine rain.
♂ 12	65·6	58·6	29·57	65·6	570	·143	·068	S.E. light airs and calm.
☿ 13	67·0	58·9	29·53	66·5	495	·475	·110	S. fresh breezes, fine weather.
♃ 14	66·8	60·3	29·72	66·0	498	·020	·115	S. to S.W. a gale, cloudy.
♀ 15	64·2	59·0	29·94	62·5	520	·548	·120	W.N.W. fresh br., showery.
♄ 16	66·4	57·8	30·05	65·4	483	·038	·128	N.W. to S.W. lt. br., cloudy.
☉ 17	69·8	60·9	30·03	68·0	466	—	·160	W.N.W. lt. airs, fine weather.
☾ 18	70·3	61·2	30·09	68·3	455	—	·085	W.S.W. lt. airs, fine weather.
♂ 19	73·0	61·6	30·08	73·0	466	—	·075	W. by S. light airs, sultry.
☿ 20	68·3	61·7	30·00	65·8	516	·122	·098	S.W. lt. breezes, very cloudy.
♃ 21	68·8	58·0	29 88	67·6	454	·058	·110	Variable winds, and overcast
♀ 22	66·3	57·8	29·53	61·9	542	·840	·092	S.W. blowing hard, cloudy.
♄ 23	68·7	57·4	29·80	63·8	513	·125	·090	W.S.W. blowing hard at int.
☉ 24	64·5	55·8	29·86	62·5	494	—	·088	W.N.W. still blowing fresh.
☾ 25	65·7	56·2	29·96	63·1	490	·261	·100	W. very squally weather.
♂ 26	61·7	54·8	30·10	60·8	468	·177	·108	W.N.W. blowing fr. fine wr.
☿ 27	67·2	54·1	30·23	67·2	414	—	·205	N.W. by W. fr. breeze, cloudy
♃ 28	70·8	61·0	30·30	70·3	451	—	·200	N.W. light breezes and fine.
♀ 29	73·2	60·4	30·34	73·2	393	—	·202	N.W. lt. breezes, fine weath.
♄ 30	73·5	60·7	30·33	71·6	352	—	·175	N.N.W. fr. breezes, fine day.

TO READERS AND CORRESPONDENTS.

Except in particular cases, we do not give insertion to communications addressed, in the first instance, to other quarters for publication.

"An Old Officer of Cavalry," and other Correspondents, will observe that we have treated the important question to which they allude, in all its bearings, in our present Number.

We are much indebted to several Correspondents for offers of assistance in communicating the occurrences at the principal Ports, &c. Communications *of interest* from *any* Port, or Station, will be acceptable.

The pressure of subjects nearer home obliges us to intermit our Foreign Miscellany this month. Some Memoirs of deceased General Officers and Admirals are also postponed for the same reason.

Our Correspondence, though we have reinforced the space it usually occupies, by some pages, this month, still continues in arrear, from the causes mentioned in our last. Our Contributors and Correspondents are, therefore, requested to accept our general acknowledgments, and assurance of receiving due attention "as opportunities offer."

United States, Report of the Secretary of the Treasury of, 79

Van Dieman's Land, Notes from, 342
Venice, prosperity of, 6
Vernon, frigate, launched, 272
Villa Velha, a Peninsular Reminiscence, 183
Voice from before the Mast, 110
Voice from St. Helena, 545
Voyage of Hanno, 490

Wagram, battle of, 379
Wallace, Right Hon. Mr., Speech of, 347
Walsh, Dr., biographical account of, 286
Warsaw, escape of Skyrznecki from, 186
Waterloo, loss of the French at, 45, 217
Weapons of the Cavalry, 547
Weedon, Court of Inquiry at, 549
Wellington, Duke of, compliment paid him by the King, 402—dastardly attack upon him, 452
Western Islands, Narrative of the Warfare in, up to the assembling of the present expedition, 149
West India Slavery, remarks on, 376
West Indians, character of, 377
West Indies, Letters from, 325, 468
Whale-catching, sport of, 485
William IV., his Visit to Greenwich and Woolwich, 267—outrageous attack on, 401—inspects the Troops in Hyde Park, 402
Williams, Capt. James, correction of an error respecting, 255
Wilson, Sir Robert, his proceedings in Galicia, 475
Windham's Act, 416
Winthrop, Vice-Admiral, Memoir of his Services, 354

Zaragoza, incident at the siege of, 525
Zayas, General, operations of, 477
Zuyder Zee, Dutch Fleet in, 33

END OF THE SECOND PART OF 1832.

London: WILLIAM CLOWES, Stamford-street.

Navy Estimates, 273, 275
—— Greek, strength of, 382
Negro, African, character of, 374
Nelson, Lord, vindication of, 538
Nerva, battle of, 15
Niagara, fort of, taken, 68
Notes from Van Dieman's Land, 342

Occurrences at the principal Ports and Stations, 396, 529
Occurrence at Sea, 524
Ocean, currents of, 528
Officer's affidavit, an, 191
——— Pay, 195
Officers, regimental, on the dress and messing of, 544
Old Soldier to J. M. upon Tactics, 392
Optimist, consolations of one, 145
Order of the Bath, 539
Orloff, Count, the Russian envoy, 113, 114
Otter and Elliot, Messrs., their gallant conduct, 75
Otway, Lieut., on the engineers of steam-vessels, 249
Outpost Duties of Cavalry, remarks on, 202
Owen, Capt. W. F. W., on the Maldiva Islands, 120
Oxford, Meeting of the British Association at, 403

Paez, Gen., Memoirs of, 121
Paley, his definition of honour, 196
Panama, projected railway across the Isthmus of, 207
Paris, ravages of the Cholera at, 113—insurrection in, 401
Parish Officers, caution to, 407
Park, Mr., mooring-blocks invented by, 532
Park, Professor, his Dogmas of the Constitution, 240
Parliamentary proceedings connected with the Army and Navy, abstract of, 125, 273, 409, 554
Parnell, Sir H., 409, 412, 413, 414
Patroles, remarks on, 204
Patronage and Premium Promotions, 319
Paulet, Lord Henry, services of, 112
Pedro, Don, expedition under, 549
Peninsula, British Cavalry in, 386
Pensions of soldiers, commutation of, 415, 555
Pepy's Memoirs of the Navy, 125
Perfection, progress of, and prospects of Peace, 433
Philip of Macedon, 291
Phœnicians, naval power of, 1
Picquets, Advanced, instructions respecting, 202, support of, 203
Poetry—the Hulan to his Charger, 196
Poland and Russia, 248
Poles, disbanded, employment of, 78
Polytechnic schools, conduct of the students, 438
Population, maritime, of the British empire, 57
Ports and Stations, occurrences at, 396, 529
Portsmouth, letters from, 396—ships building at, 398—ships in ordinary at, 531
Position and Duties of the United Service, 440
Prestonpans, battle of, 46, 214
Prissick, Capt., in the service of the Pasha of Egypt, 222
Prize money, distribution of, 139, 554
Prize Recaptured, an Incident of the last American War, 167
Promotion in the Navy, remarks on, 386—in the Army, 388
Promotions and Appointments, 139, 282, 421, 571
Prussia, king of, visit to, 464
Publications, new, reviews and critical notices of, 81, 240, 382, 526
Punishments in the British Army, observations on, 450
————, Naval, remarks on, 366
Purvis, Capt., 256

Queries regarding tonnage, or the Admeasurement of Shipping, 350

Races, at Berlin, described, 465
Railways, marine, 70, 207
Recollections of a Sea Life, 33, 329, 481
Recruits for the East India Company, 251
Reform bill, passes the Lords, 401
———— Scotch, passed, 549
Refugees, in France, 235
Reminiscences of a Subaltern, 173
Reply to the remarks of "An Old Soldier," on the Essay on Tactics, 212
Retrospect of Monthly Memorabilia, 379
Review, grand, in Hyde Park, 402
Reviews and Critical Notices of New Publications, 81, 240, 382, 526
Riding establishment, for the British Cavalry, 115
Rienzi, M. de, on the military and naval forces of China, 80
Rio Janeiro, letter from, 408
Robinson, Wm., on the present mode of manning the Navy, 110
Rottenburg, Lieut.-General, memoir of his Services, 504
Royal Aides-de-Camp, 235
——— Astronomical Society, proceedings of, 117, 269
——— Engineers and Sappers, 253
——— Geographical Society, proceedings of, 120
——— Louisa, launched, 272

Royal Naval School, 117, 261—resolutions submitted by the Council, *ib.*
Runjeet Singh, his meeting with the Governor-General of India, 17
Russell, Lord John, 559
Russia, military resources of, 236
——— and British India, 14, 248

Sabugal, loss of the French near, 48, 217
Saguenay, river, 316
Sailors, British, on the comforts of, 83
——— Pets, 85
Science, state of, in England and France, 299
Scobell, Captain, on the benefit of field-gardens for the labouring poor, 93
Scotch Reform Bill, passed, 549
Sea, an Occurrence at, 524
Sea Life, Recollections of, 33, 329, 481
Seamen, distinctive Badges to, 546
——— Gunners, instruction of, 258
Sea Ports, official visits to, 103
Semaphores, utility of, 516
Seniors and Juniors, 108
Service, medals for, 110
Sewolad, a Russian Man-of-war, 42
Shark-catching, sport of, 481
Sherer's Life of the Duke of Wellington, 526
Shipbuilders, ignorance of, 542
Ships in Ordinary in Portsmouth Harbour in July 1832, 531
Ship-building, observations on, 247
—— on the construction of, 90, 347
Shower-bath, new, observations on, 94
Sketches of the War of the French in Spain, in 1823, 26, 471
Skinner, Capt., his Excursions in India, 527
——— Colonel, 19
Skirmishing, remarks on, 206
Skyrznecki. From the Unpublished Manuscript of a Traveller, 184—his Narrative of his escape from Warsaw to Cracow, 186
Slade, General, 337
Slaughter, Commander, snuff-box presented to, 553
Slaver, Spanish, captured, 63
Small-arms, on the practice of, 242
Smyth, Capt. W. H., meteorological register kept by him, 144, 288, 432, 576
Snow, Mr., letter of, 117
Soldiers, on the enlisting, discharging, and pensioning of, 96—character of, 451
Soldiers' Pensions, commutation of 415, 555
Somerville, remarks on the case of, 444
——— Mrs., her work on the Motion of the Heavenly Spheres, 311
Southern Africa and the British Colonies, 370
Spain and Portugal, history of, 526
Spain, Sketches of the War of the French in, in 1823. By a Royalist. 161, 471
Spanish Army, its strength, 381
Speculations, Maritime, 319
Spencer, Sir Brent, letter of, 256
Squadron, experimental, 530
Standard Novels, noticed, 382
——— of the Prophet, 239
Standing Armies, introduction of, 290
Stars, how to obtain a knowledge of them, 333
Steam-Carriages, observations on, 91
———Vessels, remarks on, 65—engineers of, 249
Stewart, Major-General, monument to his memory, 357
Stocqueler's Pilgrimage through Khuzistan, &c., 528
Storm at Sea, described, 343
Streets, attack of, 548
St. Helena, a voice from, in defence of its troops, 545
St. Lawrence, survey of, 197
St. Sebastian, operations of the French before, 161
Subaltern, Reminiscences of, 173
Superstition, effects of, 525
Sutton, Rear-Admiral, memoirs of his Services, 499
Sutlez, bridge of boats over, 18
Symonds, Captain, on Naval Architecture or Construction, 346—remarks on, 507

Tactics, modern, remarks on, 42—reply to, 212—further remarks on, 392
Talbot, Colonel, killed, 49, 219
Tanks, iron, weight, &c., of, 534
Tasman's Head, Van Dieman's Land, 344
Terceira, holds out against Don Miguel, 149
Thames water, properties of, 514
Thompson, Major, his death, 431
Times Newspaper, its patriotism, 52
Tonnage, queries regarding, 350
Traits and Incidents, Naval and Military, Anecdote of the late General Sir George Don, 227—Action of the Merlin sloop off Havre, 228—Anecdote of a French Officer at El Bodon, 229—Exploits of British Dragoons, *ib.*—My last Cigar, 230—Mitchell, the Pirate, 520—An Occurrence at Sea, 524—Superstition, 525
Turkey, address of the Sultan of, 238—regulations of the Sultan, 382
Turkish Troops, despatched into Asia Minor, 79
Turks, remarks on their dress, 9
Tyre, naval dominion of, 2

Uniform of Officers, 123, 272
United Service, position and duties of, 440

PAGE

General Darling and Mr. Hume . . . 518

Reviews and Critical Notices—Equipment, Displacement, &c., of Ships of War.—Works by Sir Howard Douglas.—History of Spain and Portugal.—Life of the Duke of Wellington.—An Account of British India.—Sketches in India.—Excursions in India.—The Neilgherry Hills.—Coleman's Mythology of the Hindoos.—A Pilgrimage through Khuzistan and Persia, &c.—Tales and Novels of Maria Edgeworth.—Adventure of Barney Mahony.—History of Charlemagne.—A new Map of the Duchy of Savoy 526

Occurrences at the Out-Ports:—Portsmouth—Devonport—Milford-Haven 529

Nelson 538

Order of the Bath 539

Naval Architects 541

On the Dress and Messing of Regimental Officers . . 544

A Voice from St. Helena 545

Distinctive Badges to Seamen 546

Weapons of the Cavalry 547

Depôt Appointments 548

Attack of Streets 548

Forage and Travelling Allowances . . . 548

BIND... MAY 19 1971

U
1
U6
no.42-45

~~Physical & Applied Sci, Serials~~

The United Service magazine

PLEASE DO NOT REMOVE
CARDS OR SLIPS FROM THIS POCKET

UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO LIBRARY